



The Livestock Sector in the CAADP Compacts:

Evidence from IGAD countries

REVIEW PAPER

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ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This work benefitted from the valuable input of many colleagues and partners in Ethiopia, Kenya and Uganda where the study was conducted. We are deeply indebted to Dr Dil Peeling and Dr Otieno Mtula of the IGAD LPI for the useful comments they made in earlier drafts of this work. We also gratefully acknowledge the logistical support of Ms Mekdim Ketsela of IGAD LPI during the fieldwork and in the compilation of this work. The contribution of the National Technical Focal Points in the three IGAD countries, Dr Thomas Cherenet in Ethiopia, Dr Julia Kinyua in Kenya and Dr Justus Byamuto in Uganda is highly appreciated. This AU-IBAR/FAO collaborative work has been made possible by the support of the Director of AU-IBAR, Prof. Ahmed El Elsawalhy, of the former and current directors of the Animal Health and Production Division of FAO, Drs Samuel Jutzi and Berhe Tekola, respectively, and of the FAO Regional Office for Africa's Regional Animal Production and Health Officer, Dr Cheikh Ly, to whom we are grateful. Last, but not least, we are indebted beyond measure to the key informants in the three countries who spared time, under short notice, to respond to our questions.

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DISCLAIMER

This work was planned and commissioned by the Inter-Governmental Authority on Development's Livestock Policy Initiative (IGAD LPI). This study evaluated how livestock-related issues have been articulated in the CAADP Compacts of Ethiopia, Kenya and Uganda. In particular, the study (i) reviewed how the CAADP Compacts endorsed by the three IGAD member countries appreciate the many livelihood services provided by livestock, and (ii) assessed how well the perspectives and priorities of various stakeholders, including the food insecure women, are reflected in the Compact.

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The opinions expressed in this paper are solely those of the authors and do not constitute in any way the position of the FAO, IGAD, AU-IBAR, the Livestock Policy Initiative nor the governments studied.

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ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

(I)PRSP	(Interim) Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper
AATF	African Agricultural Technology Foundation
ADLI	Agriculture Development-Led Industrialization
ADWGs	Agriculture Donor Working Groups
ASALs	Arid and semi-arid lands
ASCU	Agriculture Sector Coordinating Unit
ASDS	Agricultural Sector Development Strategy
ASM	Agricultural Sector Ministries
AU	African Union
AU-IBAR	African Union-InterAfrican Bureau for Animal Resources
CAADP	Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme
CGE	Computable general equilibrium
CNFP	CAADP national focal point
COMESA	Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa
CSO	Civil society organization
DANIDA	Danish International Development Agency
DAP	Draught animal Power
DFZ	Disease Free Zone
DSIP	Agriculture Sector Development Strategy and Investment
EU	European Union
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GOK	Government of Kenya
HIPC	Highly Indebted Poor Countries
HIV/AIDS	Human Immunodeficiency Virus/Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
IFAD	International Fund for Agricultural Development
IFPRI	International Food Policy Research Institute
IGAD	Inter-Governmental Authority on Development
ILRI	International Livestock Research Institute
IMF	International Monetary Fund
KEPSA	Kenya Private Sector Alliance

LPI	Livestock Policy Initiative
LSU	Livestock unit
MAAIF	Ministry of Agricultural Animal Industry and Fisheries
MDG	Millennium Development Goal
MoARD	Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development
MOFED	Ministry of Finance and Economic Development
MOLD	Ministry of Livestock Development
NEPAD	New Partnership for Africa's Development
NGO	Nongovernmental Organization
NMK	National Museums of Kenya
PASDEP	Plan for Accelerated and Sustained Development to End Poverty
PEAP	Poverty Eradication Action Plan
PIF	Ethiopia's Agricultural Sector Policy and Investment Framework
PMA	Plan for the Modernization of Agriculture
RECs	Regional Economic Communities
RED&FS	Rural Economic Development and Food Security
ReSAKSS	Regional Strategic Analysis and Knowledge Support System
RoK	Republic of Kenya
SAPs	Structural Adjustment Policies
SDPRP	Sustainable Development and Poverty Reduction Program
SLM	Sustainable Land Management
SPS	Sanitary and Phytosanitary
SRA	Strategy for Revitalizing Agriculture
SWC	Sector Working Committee
SWG	Sector Working Group
TWG	Thematic working group
UBOS	Uganda Bureau of Statistics
UK	United Kingdom
UNDP	United Nations Development Program
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
WTO	World Trade Organization

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Livestock play multiple but important roles in the lives of people in the IGAD region. They provide food, fiber and social-economic services to millions of owners who keep them. These roles are critically important particularly among the pastoralists who largely depend on livestock for their livelihood. Hence, any policy, strategy or development programme designed to improve the performance of the agricultural sector in these countries must not only address livestock issues but also be mindful of its many livelihood services. This study evaluated how livestock-related issues have been articulated in the CAADP CCompacts of Ethiopia, Kenya and Uganda. In particular, the study (i) reviewed how the CAADP CCompacts endorsed by the three IGAD member countries appreciate the many livelihood services provided by livestock, and (ii) assessed how well the perspectives and priorities of various stakeholders, including the food insecure women, are reflected in the CCompacts.

This was done in cognizance of the fact the CAADP framework is the prevailing continental “road map” for spurring the growth of African agriculture to enable it effectively contribute to the reduction of challenges arising from underdevelopment, food insecurity, hunger and poverty. In addition, many development partners concerned with the development of the agricultural sector in the IGAD region have agreed to realign their support to the CAADP agenda.

The study used two approaches to achieve its objectives (i) a thorough desk review of the literature including country CCompacts, their supporting documents (policies, strategies, studies, etc) and other published and grey literature, and (ii) conducted key informant interviews with stakeholders who had participated in the CAADP process to assess the level of participation of various stakeholders, particularly the food insecure livestock keepers and women in that process. The key informants included the CAADP National Focal Points in the three countries, government officers, representatives of international organizations and other stakeholders who had been involved in the CAADP process.

The study found that:

- I. All the documents reviewed completely fail to recognize the broader livelihood services derived from livestock. This may have arisen from the failure of prevailing policies and strategy documents used or consulted during the CAADP process to understand the multiple livelihood service of livestock and the needs and priorities of poor livestock dependant especially women and other vulnerable groups. All the documents are pre-occupied with promoting the maximization of livestock production and productivity to increase marketed surplus without specific attention to the needs of poor livestock keepers and particularly women. It is worth noting that the majority of livestock keepers in Africa are what can be termed as “marginal livestock keepers”, meaning that they lack sufficient critical mass of assets to regularly produce a surplus from their livestock to be able to participate in the market.
- II. The failure to recognize the broader livelihood services and the perspectives and priorities of grass-roots stakeholders could be partly explained by the fact that policy design in the three countries is based on purely physical economic models rather than being informed by a more social-oriented livelihoods approach which takes into

account a household's capabilities and assets (both material and social) and activities required for a means of living. Most economic models ignore this.

- III. Although the Ethiopian Compact is configured to align with the CAADP framework, the CCompact and its supporting document (PIF) does not adequately address livestock issues. Interestingly, however, the post-CAADP Compact roadmap proposes eight interventions under Pillar IV to develop livestock and pastoral areas.
- IV. The predecessor of the PIF (the PASDEP) was more articulate with regard to livestock issues compared to the PIF. It seems, therefore, that the PIF (which is supposed to be better) watered down the aspirations of the PASDEP with regard to livestock and pastoral development. Perhaps the failure of these policy documents to articulate livestock issues is due to the lack of a comprehensive livestock development policy and the weak representation of the livestock sector in Ethiopia's MoARD.
- V. Kenya's CAADP Compact does not seem to be well aligned to the CAADP four-pillar framework. Its six thematic areas are scattered across two strategic foci, one on subsectors and the other on production factors. The failure of Kenya to adopt the CAADP framework could be attributed to her initial reluctance to mainstream CAADP into her SRA arguing that the former would rival or even run parallel to the latter. In comparison to Ethiopia's and Uganda's Compacts, the Kenyan Compact addresses livestock issues and clearly identifies the investments needed to develop the sector. However, it still does not provide the livestock-related data and indicators used to identify interventions in the livestock sector.
- VI. Kenya's ASDS in many ways replicates the provisions of the SRA, the document it was meant to replace. However, although it introduces the SLM pillar, gender issues, private sector and donor participation as well as a sector-wide approach to planning, it does not engender a "business unusual" approach to the agricultural sector policy discourse as expected.
- VII. Although Uganda's DSIP (the Compact supporting document) is packaged into four programmes, it is not explicitly cast into the CAADP four-pillar framework. In fact, the fourth programme dubbed "Institutional Development" is strictly not a programme but merely a reorganization of the MAAIF and its agents. The NDP, the successor of the DSIP, replicates the provisions of the DSIP, which borrows from the PMA. Hence, the three documents (the PMA, DSIP and NDP) ignore livestock and pastoral development issues and do not appreciate the multiple roles of livestock in sustainable livelihoods. The three documents do not add much value to each other begging the question on the need to develop multiple documents with overlapping contents and with no regard to lessons learned from their implementation.
- VIII. Based on the key informant interviews, it seems there was minimal, if any, participation of poor livestock keepers and women in the CAADP process in all the three countries studied. Some informants intimated that it would have been very expensive to conduct thorough consultations with grass-roots stakeholders. Others indicated that the time allocated to the process was too short to enable the country team conduct meaningful consultations with poor livestock keepers and women.

- IX. Although gender issues somehow got their way into the CAADP Compacts, based on key informant interviews, there was little participation of women and youth in the CAADP process. In fact, almost all the CAADP teams in the three countries were entirely male (at least in Ethiopia; Kenya's team had two females in a team of 15; the composition of Uganda's team was unavailable).
- X. From the key informant interviews, there are strong indications that the Ethiopian CAADP process was consultant-driven. While the engagement of consultants is important in respect of capacity constraints, there is always the danger of alienating the bureaucrats some of who may feel "used" by outsiders leading to ambivalence and non-acceptance of the resulting policy. The Kenyan CAADP process was mainly driven by the Ministry of Agriculture and spearheaded by ASCU. However, the initial scepticism about CAADP by the Ministry of Agriculture meant that the CAADP process ran parallel to the revision of the SRA and that important activities such as stocktaking and the CGE modelling by IFPRI did not significantly inform the process as envisaged by the CAADP secretariat. Uganda's case was somewhat mixed with partial participation of consultants and the national focal point.
- XI. Except Kenya's MTIP that disaggregates the budget outlay according to agro-ecological zones, the investment plans of Ethiopia and Uganda are not disaggregated enough to show how much money is allocated to livestock and to support the livelihoods of poor livestock keepers. This could be attributed to the lack of full integration of the livestock sector in both countries' Compacts.
- XII. A keen examination of the various agricultural sector plans, policies and strategies in Ethiopia, Kenya and Uganda reveals some element of "path dependency"¹ in the way the plans, policies and strategies have been formulated and articulated over time. This may be explained by the fact that the constraints facing the agricultural sector in each of the three countries do not change significantly over the usual five-year planning period. A key example is the relationship between Ethiopia's SDPRP, PASDEP and PIF. While the underlying development philosophy running through these documents is agricultural development-led industrialization (ADLI), the main strategic thrusts remain the same year in year out. In fact, the PIF uses the phrase "foot on the ground" in an indirect reference to path dependency in technology development. The observed path dependency in policy formulation can also be attributed to the poor participation of grass-roots stakeholders in policy making. Although most documents claim to have consulted widely, there is no tangible evidence of how the grass-roots stakeholders' issues and problems were identified and included in the policy design. In particular, the documents do not indicate the tools and data used for problem identification and policy analysis. Consequently, the documents ignore the priorities of poor livestock keepers. Those that include them tend to treat them casually.
- XIII. Although the CAADP allows member countries to develop their Compacts in their own way, the CAADP process itself is unwittingly "top-down" and predominantly externally driven. Right from funding to the signing of the Compact and the supervision of CAADP

¹According to Kay (2005), a process is path dependent if "initial moves in one direction elicit further moves in that same direction; in other words the order in which things happen affects how they happen; the trajectory of change up to a certain point *constrains* the trajectory after that point" (p. 553).

implementation through the peer review mechanism, the whole CAADP process somewhat compels countries to abide by its rules. This may be viewed as an external imposition by participating countries with the sanction that those who fail to align their development plans with the CAADP framework risk losing donor support. This view may have informed Kenya's initial reluctance to embrace CAADP.

Based on the foregoing observations, therefore, there is need to build the capacity of CAADP country teams in policy formulation and analysis in order to break path dependency patterns, which tend to limit the much required policy innovations, and thus enhance the quality of their CAADP documents. The current ones are patchy and at times repetitive and too wordy for comprehension. Coupled to this and given the strategic mandate of AU-IBAR in guiding the implementation of the CAADP Livestock Companion Document, there is need to provide the CAADP country teams with some tool, particularly one that is based on a livelihoods framework, to help them appropriately entrench the livestock sector and pastoral development in the various CAADP documents.

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Role of livestock in the IGAD region: macro and micro perspectives

The role of livestock in the Inter-governmental Authority on Development (IGAD) region¹ is well documented (Knips, 2004; Sandford and Ashley, 2008; Behnke, 2010). Sandford and Ashley (2008) indicate that the region hosts nearly half of sub-Saharan Africa (SSA)'s cattle, sheep and goat population. Ethiopia and the larger Sudan² have the highest livestock population in sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) comprising, respectively, 28.4 and 22.3 million livestock units, with the entire IGAD region hosting an estimated 68 million livestock units³. Of these, about 53 percent are raised by pastoralist communities on natural pastures in the arid and semi arid lands (ASALs). This demonstrates the importance of pastoralism in contributing to livestock production, one of the main economic activities of the IGAD member countries.

According to AU-IBAR (2010), around ten percent of the human population of SSA is primarily dependent on livestock, while another 58 percent at least partially depend on livestock. Among the IGAD member states, Djibouti and Somalia have the greatest proportion of their populations in pasture-based production systems (71 and 76 percent of the populations respectively); while Sudan, Somalia and Ethiopia respectively have 8.1, 7.4 and 5.1 million in pastoral and agro-pastoral production. Except in Somalia where livestock contribute about 80 percent of the gross domestic product (GDP), livestock in the other six member states contribute about 15 to 20 percent of the GDP⁴ (Fahey, 2007; Sandford and Ashley, 2008). Based on FAOSTAT data, livestock contribute between 18 and 88 percent of the net value of agricultural production in the IGAD countries (Figure 1).

¹Consists of seven countries, namely, Djibouti, Ethiopia, Eritrea, Kenya, Somalia, Sudan and Uganda.

²Including South Sudan.

³A livestock unit (abbreviated as LSU) is a reference unit that facilitates the aggregation of livestock of various species and age groups by the use of specific coefficients established on the basis of nutritional or feed requirement of each type of animal. For instance, an adult dairy cow is 1.0 LSU; a sheep/goat is 0.1 LSU, a mature pig is 0.5 LSU, a broiler is 0.007 LSU and an equine is 0.8 LSU (see http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/statistics_explained/index.php/Glossary:LSU).

⁴Behnke (2010, 2011) shows that the contribution of livestock to the GDP is grossly underestimated by 113% and 132% in Ethiopia and Kenya respectively.

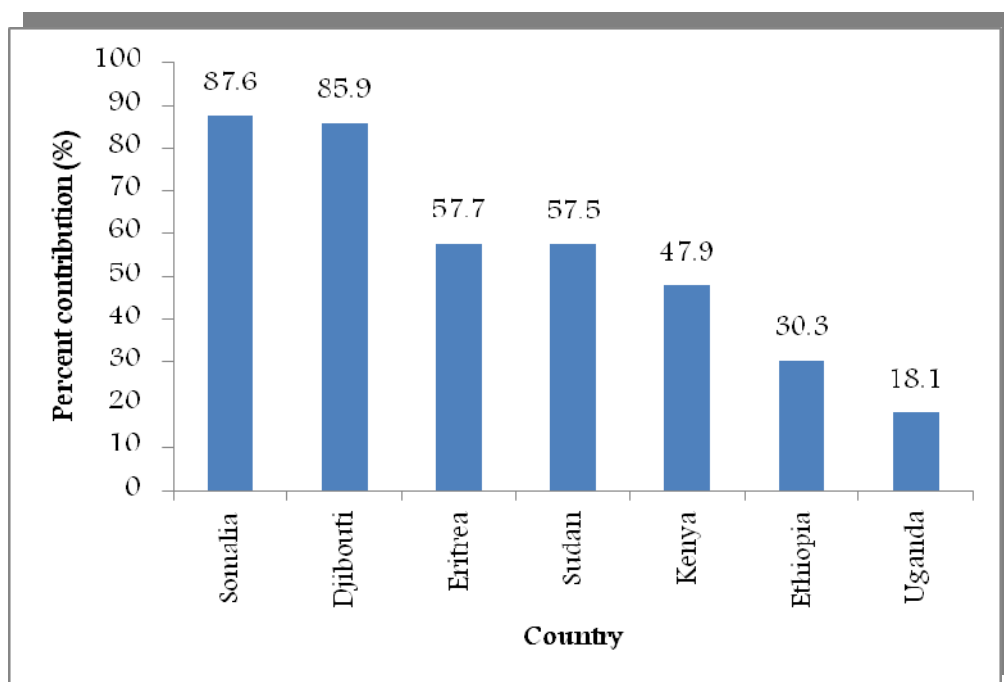


Figure 1. Average contribution of livestock to net value of agricultural production (2005-2009)

Source: FAOSTAT (2012)

The livestock sector is a major source of foreign exchange and industrial raw materials (meat, milk, eggs, hides, skins and fibre) in the IGAD member states. For instance, about 20 percent of agricultural exports in Sudan are livestock-based; hides and skins are Ethiopia's second biggest export; and in Somalia, livestock and livestock products account for 80 percent of exports in normal years (Fahey; 2007; Sandford and Ashley, 2008). The livestock sector is also a major consumer of industrial inputs such as veterinary drugs, commercial feeds and machinery. As an example, Figure 2 shows the number of milking machines imported by four IGAD member countries between 2001 and 2008¹. Notably, Kenya imported the most (1,710) milking machines probably because it has the largest dairy sector in the region. It was followed by Uganda at 1,113; Ethiopia and Sudan imported only 183 and 12 milking machines respectively over the same period.

¹Data are missing for Djibouti, Eritrea and Somalia.

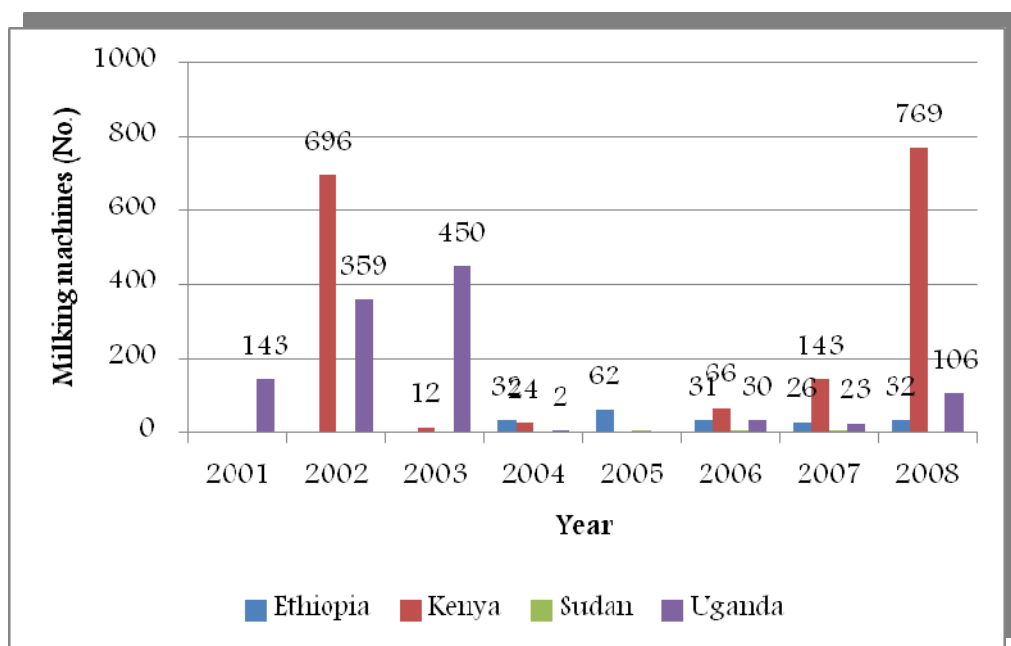


Figure 2. Number of milking machines imported by various countries between 2001 and 2008

Source: FAOSTAT (2011)

At the household level, livestock serve multiple roles including food supply, income generation and in meeting socio-cultural obligations. With regard to food and nutrition supply, livestock are the only source of animal proteins and micro-nutrients like vitamin B12 that are essential for children's physical and cognitive development (AU-IBAR, 2010). Although pulses (beans, peas, etc) are the single most important source of proteins in the IGAD member countries, livestock products collectively provide the highest amount of animal proteins consumed daily (Table 1). Among the livestock products, milk and bovine meat provide about 81 percent of animal proteins in the IGAD region. Pork and eggs are the least important sources of proteins. Among the IGAD countries, Sudan, Djibouti and Kenya have the highest per capita daily consumption of animal proteins at 25.6, 18.5 and 14.7g/person/day respectively. Interestingly, although Ethiopia has the largest livestock population in Africa, it has the least daily animal protein consumption per capita at only 4.7g. Whereas the IGAD member countries have high livestock numbers per capita, the average annual per capita consumption of animal products is low, even by developing country standards (Knips, 2004).

Table 1. Sources of proteins in IGAD countries¹

Country	Pulses	Milk	Bovine meat	Mutton & chevron	Poultry meat	Pork	Eggs
Djibouti	5.7	6.2	7.7	2.1	2.3	0.1	0.1
Ethiopia	10.2	1.8	1.9	0.7	0.2	0	0.1
Eritrea	4.3	1.2	1.4	1	0.1		0.1
Kenya	9.8	8.5	4.7	0.8	0.2	0.1	0.4
Sudan	5.2	18.3	3.5	3.3	0.2		0.3
Uganda	10.7	2	1.4	0.5	0.4	1	0.1
Total	45.9	38	20.6	8.4	3.4	1.2	1.1

Source: FAOSTAT (2012)

In pastoral communities livestock are the major sources of household food and nutritional security. For instance, among the Maasai, milk and milk products account for 60 to 65 percent of the dietary energy and herds typically are 66 percent milk-providing females, while neutered males are raised for meat consumption and traditional and market exchange (Fratkin, 2001). Although highly debated by environmentalists and ecologists as the main cause of environmental degradation (e.g., see Hardin, 1968), the accumulation of large livestock herds among pastoralists is a rational method - when market and institutional imperfections loom large - of storing surplus meat on the hoof, which evens out food supply during the drier seasons (Western and Finch, 1986). In such cases, livestock act as a means of buffering food shortages during the years of poor crop production (Powell et al., 2004).

The sale of livestock and livestock products (milk, meat, eggs, manure, draft power and fibre) generates the much needed income in livestock keeping households in Africa. In a review of 23 livestock-related studies undertaken in SSA, Nouala et al. (2011) found that livestock contribute between two and 49 percent of household income. Of these, three and four studies indicated that livestock contribute about nine and five percent of the household income respectively. This contribution emanates from the fact over 53 percent of the population in SSA keeps some livestock, meaning that one out of two persons in the continent is partly dependent on livestock for their livelihoods (ILRI, 2002, quoted in Nouala et al., 2011). Pica-Ciamarra et al. (2011) provide evidence that the poor and landless households derive a higher share of their income from livestock than the relatively better off. These authors cite the study by Adams (1993) who found livestock in Pakistan contributing about 20 percent to total income for households in the first three income quintiles, and 15 and 10 percent for households in the fourth and top quintile. Ellis et al. (2003) are reported to have found that livestock contribute less than 5.3 percent to the income of households in the top income quartile whereas they contribute 7.1 and 7.5 percent to the income of households in the first two quartiles in Zomba District of Malawi. Likewise, Akter et

¹Note: There were no data for Somalia.

al. (2007) are said to have found livestock contributing over 25 percent to the income of the poorest quintiles and only seven percent to the income of the richest farmers in the Indian State of Andhra Pradesh. Delgado et al. (1999) are also reported to have found the contribution of livestock to income to be larger for the poorest households than for those with higher incomes, larger farm size and more balanced dietary adequacy in seven countries in Africa, Asia and Latin America.

Livestock also serve both as insurance and as the primary repositories of wealth in many stock-owning economies (Schneider, 1970; Moll, 2005; Behnke, 2010). At the household level, livestock act as “living banks” and as assets that provide interest-free credit. The enduring pre-occupation of the pastoralist to build large livestock herds is primarily motivated by the singular need to create wealth. This wealth (measured in livestock) may then in turn be used as savings, as investment capital, or as currency for increased consumption (Quam, 1978). These attributes of livestock are particularly important for the rural communities who are mainly unbanked and generally lack access to formal financial and insurance services (Behnke, 2010).

To cope with the vagaries of life (e.g., risks associated with climatic variability) in the absence of or in the presence of restricted formal finance and insurance institutions, people in the rural areas tend to diversify risk by investing in livestock, gold, jewellery and tree crops (Moll, 2005). The insurance function of livestock results from the potential of being able to sell animals in case of emergencies. Therefore, having livestock is comparable with having insurance. Among the under-monetized rural communities, livestock serve as a standard measure of value and as a medium of exchange, the latter attribute owing to their high liquidity. Livestock also serve as symbols of wealth, which accords the owner social status. According to Moll (2005), the status function of livestock is related to the presence or absence of other means to display wealth, such as durable consumer goods and building materials in most livestock producing areas. Being a source of wealth, livestock facilitate access to financial services, both in formal and informal markets (Pica-Ciamarra et al., 2011).

In the mixed crop-livestock production systems which characterize much of SSA agriculture, livestock play a key role in nutrient recycling where crop residues are used as livestock feed while manure is used as organic fertilizer (Powell et al., 2004). Thus, there exist a unique but inextricable complementarity between crop and livestock farming in these systems. Given the low uptake of inorganic fertilizer in much of SSA (Kaitibie et al., 2010), livestock manure remains the only affordable substitute to the costly mineral fertilizers. According to Powell et al. (2004), animal manure is one of the most important soil fertility amendments in smallholder farms in SSA. Hence, as long as mineral fertilizers remain unaffordable, the fertility of the cropland will continue to depend on nutrients supplied in the form of manure.

Livestock also utilize the land resource that would otherwise be unsuitable for sustainable crop production. For instance, Knips (2004) indicates that 60 percent of the land in the IGAD countries is arid, i.e., it receives less than 500mm of rainfall annually with less than 90 days of growing period. Respective share of land of member countries classified as arid is as follows: Djibouti and Somalia (100%); Kenya (73%), Eritrea (67%), Ethiopia (41%), and Uganda (1%) (Knips, 2004). This land is either too dry or too infertile to support meaningful arable crop production. However, the

land is highly suitable for livestock production based on natural pastures. Livestock harvest the forage and convert it into essential animal proteins and fibre for human use.

In many SSA countries, draft animals, principally cattle, but also donkeys, horses, mules, and even camels provide power for ploughing, weeding, harvesting, processing, and marketing of farm produce (Powell et al., 2004). For instance, in Ethiopia there is evidence that cattle were first used for ploughing in the latter part of the third millennium while currently, between nine and ten million cattle are used for draft purposes (Astatke and Saleem, 1996). In Kenya, the use of oxen for cultivation was introduced in the 1920s by European settlers from South Africa; however, at present, only 12 percent of smallholder farms use draft animal power (Guthiga et al., 2007). Likewise in Uganda, the contribution of draft animal power to the total agricultural power need is relatively small at approximately eight to nine percent. The main benefits of using draft animal power include the timeliness of carrying out farming operations, increased yield through improved seedbed preparation, deeper ploughing, possibility of labor saving, reduced drudgery and possibility of income generation through off-farm transport and hiring (Guthiga et al., 2007). Studies show that farmers that own draft animals tend to have larger farms than those not owning animals, which *ceteris paribus*, increases farm output through increased land area cropped and improved timeliness of planting (Gryseels et al., 1984, quoted in Astatke and Saleem, (1996); Shumba, 1984, quoted in Powell et al., 2004).

Except the provision of food and nutrition security, perhaps the other greatest role that livestock play is in socio-cultural exchange amongst the livestock keepers. The use of livestock as gifts and for the payment of bride price creates, preserves and fosters indispensable social capital that cements kinship ties. Such ties serve as “social safety nets” in times of calamities and emergencies. It has been shown that high bridewealth is positively correlated with large livestock holdings in many African societies (Schneider, 1964, quoted in Quam, 1978). Livestock are also used in the payment of liabilities and fines, and in meeting religious obligations (e.g., sacrifices to appease the dead, family celebrations, etc).

It is worth noting that each service provided by livestock provides an opportunity to strengthen the owner’s livelihood. It also provides an opportunity to add value to the livestock through policies and institutions which support that service. Furthermore, by focusing on the services most pronounced in the livelihoods of the poor or women, policy can focus directly on poverty and food insecurity in line with Pillar III of the CAADP.

1.2 Importance of including the livestock sector in the CAADP Compacts

The need to include the livestock sector in the CAADP Compacts arose from three underlying factors. First, was the inadvertent omission of livestock issues in the main CAADP document in spite of the important role that livestock play in the economies of AU member countries (see Section 1.1). Although the CAADP document elaborated on the need for the agricultural sector to grow by at least six percent per year to reduce poverty in Africa by 2015, there was little reference in the document on the role that livestock, forestry and fisheries sectors would play in the achievement of this goal. This fact was noted by the Second Ordinary Session of the Assembly of the AU held in Maputo between 10th and 12th July 2003. Subsequently, the AU Assembly called

upon member States to submit to the AU Commission proposals on strategic themes in these sectors for possible inclusion in the agenda of the Extraordinary Summit on Agriculture, Water Resources and Energy in Africa (Nyariki et al., 2008). The African Union Inter-African Bureau for Animal Resources (AU-IBAR) and the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO) presented four flagship projects for inclusion in the CAADP pillars. The four flagship projects had the following broad titles; (i) Improving access to markets for livestock and livestock products through improved livestock trade-related infrastructure and development of supportive and facilitative legal and policy frameworks, (ii) Increasing livestock productivity, resource-base and improving grassroots stakeholder decision making process, (iii) Improving preparedness and responses to water-related emergencies, and (iv) Enhanced targeted livestock research and technology transfer and implementation.

The second factor was the realization of the fact that despite years of investment in the sector, the performance of the livestock sector has remained poor in many SSA countries. For instance, data on investment in physical structures in livestock from FAOSTAT (2011) indicate that with the exception of Djibouti and Eritrea who invested an annual average of US\$33.5 million and US\$203.3 million respectively between 2000 and 2007, all the other countries spent at least US\$500 million over the same period. In this regard, Sudan led with US\$3,682 million followed by Ethiopia with US\$3,128 million and Kenya investing US\$1,134.2 million annually over the same period. Unfortunately, livestock productivity has not responded adequately to these investments. As such, livestock productivity in SSA still lags behind that of the rest of the world. For instance, according to Otte and Knips (2005), the average carcass weights achieved are only 129kg, 13.2kg, 11.8kg and 48.2kg for cattle, sheep, goats and pigs, respectively, while milk yield per lactation is 341kg. In comparison, the average yields per animal for all developing countries are 162kg, 14.9kg, 12.1kg and 72.8kg for cattle, sheep, goats and pigs, respectively, while milk yield per lactation is 994 kg. Additionally, in the traditional livestock production systems, the largest in SSA, the average calf mortality is high (22 percent) and calving rates are generally low (60 percent) (FAO, 2006). Overall, livestock production and productivity growth has not been sufficient to keep up with the demand of expanding populations. This has led to increasing levels of imports of livestock products into Africa. For instance, Africa imports 0.5 tonnes of meat and two million tonnes of milk annually, which is valued at US\$2.3 million (Nyariki et al., 2008) and is expected to further increase with increase in human population, urbanization and income. The implications of these statistics is that there exists a viable but unmet market for livestock products, which can be catered for if local production capacity was improved through focused and coordinated interventions such as those proposed by the CAADP.

The constraints perpetuating the poor performance of the livestock sector in SSA are legion. They include those related to production (e.g., high disease and pest incidence; poor breed and nutritional quality and management); marketing (e.g., missing or incomplete markets for livestock and livestock products; poor marketing infrastructure; low demand and supply factors); institutional arrangements (e.g., weak legal, policy and socio-cultural frameworks); research and development (e.g., few appropriate livestock technologies; low funding; limited human resource capacity); delivery of animal health, extension services and credit (e.g., low private-sector

investment in animal health; low funding for livestock extension services; unavailability of livestock technologies); poverty (e.g., due to external shocks and low income levels); low value addition (due to e.g., lack of processing facilities), infrastructure (e.g., poor roads and telecommunications; lack of current livestock data); climate change (leading to variable and mostly extreme weather conditions), and an uncondusive international trade environment (e.g., the costly requirement to comply with the WTO's/OIE's sanitary and phytosanitary standards (SPS) in an environment of weak animal health system amidst the presence of multiple and ubiquitous notifiable transboundary animal diseases (TADs)). The implication of these constraints is that much of the growth and poverty reduction potential that is offered by the growing demand for animal food dubbed the "livestock revolution" (see Delgado et al., 1999), will not be capitalized upon in Africa, unless they are urgently addressed. FAO (2006) notes that the livestock sector in Africa will need to grow by more than four percent annually to be able to satisfy the estimated 3.5 percent annual growth in demand for livestock products. The CAADP offers a unique framework for galvanizing and catalyzing Africa's efforts to address these constraints.

The last factor that necessitated the inclusion of livestock in the CAADP Compact was the realization of the enormous benefits that the livestock sector would achieve if it were mainstreamed into the CAAP framework. Given that CAADP is now fully on board as the official continental "road map" for the achievement of the AU vision on African agriculture as expressed in the Maputo Declaration, all agricultural sector programs, investments and interventions are now being guided by national policy documents and investment plans that are, or should be aligned, to the CAADP framework. Additionally, many development partners have agreed to realign their support with the CAADP agenda. In this regard, the donor community has developed guidelines for donor support to the CAADP process at the country level¹. Hence, any national strategy, program or intervention implemented to address the constraints and challenges facing the livestock sector must of necessity comply with the CAADP framework. It is worth noting that the CAADP Compact is a commitment by governments, development partners and other stakeholders to increase support to the agricultural sector. The most enduring aspect of this commitment is that it can be interrogated through the African Peer Review Mechanism (APRM²). Hence, any sub-sector that is omitted from the CAADP will inevitably miss out on such support.

¹See www.donorplatform.org/load/3970 - accessed 21 December 2011.

²The African Peer Review Mechanism (APRM) is a mutually agreed instrument voluntarily acceded to by the member states of the African Union (AU) as a peer-to-peer self-monitoring mechanism. Founded in 2003, the APRM encourages African countries to conform to political, economic and corporate governance values, codes and standards under the auspices of NEPAD.

2. THE CAADP AND THE LIVESTOCK COMPANION DOCUMENT: CONTENTS AND IMPLEMENTATION MECHANISMS

This chapter presents a framework which would allow analysis of the Compacts in the IGAD countries in the subsequent chapters.

2.1. The Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme (CAADP)

The CAADP is a framework for the operationalization of the African Heads of State and Government's vision for African agriculture expressed in the Maputo Declaration¹ in 2003. The Declaration focused on the need to accelerate the development of African agriculture (including livestock, forestry and fisheries) in order to deal with the problems of chronic malnutrition, high food imports and food aid that are still prevalent in Africa. The programme provides African governments, in collaboration with development partners, with an opportunity for renewed and re-focused efforts to reverse decades of stagnating economic growth, low agricultural production and declining productivity, food insecurity and increased poverty in Africa. Established within the AU's strategic framework for the pan-African socio-economic development dubbed the "New Partnership for Africa's Development" (NEPAD), the CAADP has four main pillars as shown in Box 1.

Box 1. The CAADP pillars

Pillar I: Sustainable soil and water management

Pillar II: Improvement of rural infrastructure and trade-related capacities for market access

Pillar III: Increasing food supply to reduce hunger in Africa

Pillar IV: Agricultural research, technology dissemination and adoption to improve productivity

Source: FAO (2006)

Each of these pillars has been operationalized in separate frameworks. Pillar I has been operationalized as Sustainable Land and Water Management (SLM) framework, Pillar II as the Framework for Improving Rural Infrastructure and Trade Related Capacities For Market Access (FIMA), Pillar III as the Framework for African Food Security (FAFS), while Pillar IV operates as the Framework for African Agricultural Productivity (FAAP). The role of NEPAD in CAADP is to push for changes on how agricultural business is done in Africa so that agriculture can play its critical role of contributing towards Africa's social and economic development. NEPAD also provides the platform for monitoring and evaluating the CAADP in member countries through the APRM.

According to the "Guide for CAADP Country Implementation"², the overall goal of CAADP is to improve livelihoods, food security, and environmental resilience in Africa's largely agrarian economies. Its specific objective is to support country-driven agricultural development strategies and programmes by (i) establishing clear commitment to deliver on specific targets, including investing ten percent of national budgets in the agricultural sector and achieving a six percent

¹See <http://www.nepad.org/system/files/Maputo%20Declaration.pdf> - accessed 28 December 2011.

²See http://www.caadp.net/pdf/CAADP_imp_guide_WEB.pdf - accessed 3 January 2012.

average annual growth in agricultural GDP, (ii) promoting analyses of growth options and strategies by key stakeholders, leading to consensus around a national plan of action for agricultural development, (iii) enhancing systemic planning and implementation capacities, taking advantage of best practices and analyses of past successes and failures ensuring mutual responsibility and accountability for programme results, through joint analysis and ownership of problems and peer review of progress and outcomes, (iv) strengthening implementation mechanisms, including institutional arrangements and policy alignment, (v) aligning government and development partners to agreed national agendas through African-led partnerships and development partner involvement, with resource mobilisation as part of the process, (vi) exploiting regional synergies through access to AU/NEPAD, Regional Economic Communities (RECs) and pillar institutions for advocacy, technical backstopping and for capturing regional and continental overlap and opportunities for building critical mass; and (vii) putting a premium on knowledge and skills development, and making lessons learnt available to neighbouring countries and the continent as a whole.

CAADP is guided by the following principles: (i) the principle of policy efficiency, dialogue, review and accountability, shared by all NEPAD programmes, (ii) the principle of partnerships and alliance to include farmers, agribusiness and civil society communities, (iii) the principle of accountability, whereby the roles and the responsibility of programme implementation are assigned to individual countries; that of coordination to designated RECs, while that of facilitation to the NEPAD secretariat.

2.2 The Livestock Companion Document

As explained in Section 1.2, livestock, forestry and fisheries sectors were inadvertently omitted in the initial CAADP document. Accordingly, the AU Ministers of Agriculture meeting in Maputo in 2003 requested that these sectors be given adequate attention in the NEPAD efforts. The NEPAD Steering Committee subsequently requested FAO to assist in preparing these elements for inclusion. Action was taken to prepare three separate documents on the livestock, forestry and fisheries sectors, and later to assemble them into a Companion Document to the CAADP (FAO, 2006). The preparation of the Companion Document was based on the initial drafts of the livestock, forestry and fisheries sector papers. The latter were revised using comments from African experts and institutions through various rounds of meetings and conferences.

The CAADP Companion Document has five chapters. After laying the background on African agriculture in Chapter 1, Chapter 2 presents the interactions of the three sectors (livestock, forestry and fisheries) and their contribution to CAADP. Chapters 3, 4 and 5 are separately devoted to livestock, forestry and fisheries respectively. The "Livestock Companion Document" is presented in Chapter 3 under the heading "Enhancing the role of livestock". This Chapter is divided into six sections as shown in Box 2 below.

Box 2. Details of the contents of the “Livestock Companion Document”

- 3.1. Importance of livestock in African economies
- 3.2. Livestock populations by sub-region and agro-ecological zones
- 3.3. The need to increase livestock production and productivity
- 3.4. Constraints to increased livestock production and productivity
 - 3.4.1. Technical constraints
 - 3.4.2. Policy and institutional constraints
 - 3.4.3. Specific agro-ecological zones related constraints
- 3.5. Strategies and priority areas for livestock subsector development
 - 3.5.1. Strategies and priorities by agro-ecological zone
 - 3.5.2. Priorities for research to alleviate technical constraints
- 3.6. Financial resource requirements

Source: FAO (2006)

In summary, Section 3.1 highlights the importance of livestock in GDP growth, assurance of food security, provision of draft animal power and manure, as well as in employment creation and generation of income. Section 3.2 focuses on the distribution of livestock in Africa noting that Eastern Africa accounts for half of all cattle population, more than a third of sheep and 40 percent of goat population. Western region caters for 35 percent of goat population while the Northern region accounts for 35 percent of poultry population. The Central and Southern regions have very low livestock populations due, *inter alia*, to adverse climate and high disease pressure.

Section 3.3 presents the rationale for increasing livestock production and productivity noting that increased human population, urbanization and incomes have raised the demand for food of animal origin in Africa. However, the growth in livestock production and productivity in Africa still falls short of the growth in demand for livestock products, thereby necessitating importation. Section 3.4 presents the technical, institutional and agro-ecological zone-related constraints that limit livestock production and productivity in Africa.

Section 3.5 presents the annual growth target for the livestock sector of 4.2 percent that is necessary to meet the annual growth in demand for livestock products of 3.5 percent. It also presents various agro-ecologically-stratified strategies aimed at enabling the sector to meet the growth target. In particular, in the semi-arid, sub-humid and highland zones, the strategy is to enhance the role of livestock in the agricultural intensification process, and promotion of market-based livestock development. In the marginal arid areas, the focus is on the protection of vulnerable livelihoods by arresting the degradation of the rangelands. For the humid zone, efforts are to be geared towards the protection of the tropical rainforest.

Finally, Section 3.6 provides estimates of financial resources required to unleash the potential of the livestock sector in the continent. Table 2 gives the estimated financial requirements to meet the envisaged annual growth target for the livestock sector in the continent of 4.2 percent between 2004 and 2015.

Table 2. Estimated financial requirements in identified priority areas (2004-2015)

Programme/Priority	US\$ (Million)				
	Immediate (2004-2005)	Short term (2006-2010)	Medium term (2011-2015)	Total (2004-2015)	Annual average
Policy & institutional development	800	2100	2400	5300	442
(a) Policy analysis	100	250	400	750	63
(b) Research	200	600	750	1550	129
(c) Extension/ training	200	500	750	1450	121
(d) Animal health	300	750	500	1550	129
Infrastructure development	2000	4700	9150	15850	1321
(a) Marketing	500	1100	2500	4100	342
(b) Processing	1000	2500	5000	8500	708
(c) Feed production	500	1100	1650	3250	271

Source: FAO (2006)

In general, the Livestock Companion Document captures almost all the livestock issues that need to be addressed to revamp the livestock sector in Africa. These issues range from policy and institutions to economic, biophysical and infrastructural constraints and solutions thereto. Understandably, the issues highlighted by the document are not new. However, the document does not capture some critical cross-cutting issues such as gender, HIV/AIDS and climate change. With regard to gender, it is well known that women form the backbone of the agricultural sector providing over 60 percent of agricultural labour, managing over 90 per cent of farms, and yet have limited access, control and ownership of natural resource base, especially land (ACORD et al., 2011). On the other hand, Africa is most vulnerable to climate change because of its heavy dependence on rain-fed agriculture and low adaptive capacity. Unfortunately, women farmers disproportionately bear the brunt of climate change impacts. Additionally, Africa has the highest number of HIV infections, which is threatening to slow down socio-economic development and has slowed down the growth momentum prevailing before the advent of HIV. The current version of the Livestock Companion lacks an indepth analysis of these and related issues. More specifically,

it fails to address the specific needs of women and smallholders, as well as the best policy mechanisms for meeting their needs.

Another major weakness of the Livestock Companion Document is its failure to focus on the understanding of the production objective of the livestock keeper whose production decision and choices may be highly intertwined with his/her socio-cultural circumstances, and not necessarily based on the “optimal” methods of production and trade envisaged by policy makers and analysts. The sobering fact is that the majority of livestock keepers in Africa are “marginal livestock keepers”, i.e., they lack sufficient the critical mass of assets to regularly produce a surplus from their livestock to be able to participate in the market (Nouala et al., 2011). Conversely, only a minority of livestock keepers in Africa can be defined as “small livestock producers”, which means they have the skills and resources that, when appropriate policies and institutions are in place, enable them to become successful entrepreneurs. In other words, they produce and sell surpluses of livestock and livestock products. Too often, the main preoccupation of policy makers and analysts has been to promote the physical production of livestock systems with an emphasis on marketed production. This preponderance fails to appreciate that most of livestock keepers are only marginal livestock keepers, leading to the formulation of ineffective and farmer-insensitive policies and programmes that have often reinforced some of the constraints highlighted by the Livestock Companion Document.

Another weakness of the Livestock Companion Document is that it takes governance (in all its aspects) as “given”. Whereas countries differ with respect to, *inter alia*, factor endowments, stage of development and the size of the economy, good governance is a necessary condition for effective policy formulation and implementation. Indeed, the persistence of some of the constraints identified in the Companion Document is traceable to poor governance.

2.3. Implementation of the CAADP and the livestock Companion Document

2.3.1 The CAADP implementation process

So, how are the CAADP and the Livestock Companion Document implemented? The CAADP and the Livestock Companion Document provide a continental policy framework and a regional context for country-led processes. As such, each AU member country is supposed to align its agricultural sector (including livestock) policies, programmes and strategies with the CAADP agenda as detailed in the CAADP and the Livestock Companion. However, although continental in scope and given the diversity of country contexts with regard to their level of development and in their current agricultural sector challenges and strategies, each country is expected to implement the CAADP Agenda in its own way, of course, being guided by the CAADP principles and pillar frameworks. It is worth noting that the CAADP (and its Companion Document) is not a set of supranational programmes to be implemented by individual countries but, rather, it is a pan-African framework - a set of principles and broadly defined strategies - to help countries critically review their own situation and identify investment opportunities with optimal impact and returns. In other words, *CAADP is not intended to replace nor run in parallel to existing planning and development systems*, but rather subjects these systems to rigorous analysis and reform.

Accordingly, investment programmes are designed, implemented, reviewed, adapted and re-planned in an ongoing fashion, thus building up performance and capacity in a continuous manner in each member country.

The alignment of each country's policies, programmes and strategies to the CAADP framework is achieved through the so called "national roundtables". Essentially, a country roundtable is an iterative and interactive learning process comprising analysis, design, implementation and evaluation of agricultural investment. The country implementation process aims to improve the quality and effectiveness of agricultural sector programmes by integrating the principles and values of CAADP into national systems of development planning and implementation. The roundtable process focuses on (i) aligning state policies with regional priorities and the four CAADP pillars, (ii) exploiting synergies and discussing economic bottlenecks between neighbouring countries, and deciding appropriate action on those matters, (iii) identifying gaps in the donor funding needed to achieve agreed priorities, and (iv) initiating work to monitor and evaluate CAADP's progress at the national, regional and continental levels.

The output of the national roundtables is a national pact or the "CAADP Compact" between individual governments, development partners and other stakeholders (e.g., RECs, civil society, private sector, farmer organizations, etc), detailing how countries will achieve the four CAADP pillars. The CAADP Compact is operationalized through an "Implementation Plan" that outlines the timeframe for requisite policy and institutional reforms as well as giving details on investment priorities, financial requirements and sources of funds.

The process of developing a CAADP Compact involves the following key steps: (i) stocktaking to determine the country status regarding the CAADP targets. Ideally, the stocktaking exercise is a kind of a "situational analysis" of past and current performance of the agricultural sector. It also focuses on future growth requirements to meet the CAADP targets. It consists of five elements (a) technical analysis which identifies locally feasible technical options for attaining higher productivity by looking at agricultural practices that have succeeded or failed in the area/country (b) ecosystems analysis which identifies issues, barriers and opportunities on the natural resource base, (c) financial-economic analysis which assesses the existing funding levels for agriculture, (d) policy analysis to review policies related to agricultural sectors to identify the main bottlenecks that have the most impact (either positive or negative) on the development agenda, and (v) institutional/stakeholder analysis to map out relevant institutions/stakeholders (both public and private) at national and sub-national level related to the implementation of the agriculture agenda in the country; (ii) estimating the magnitude of change required to achieve the CAADP vision and objectives. In Ethiopia, Kenya and Uganda, this was conducted by the International Food Policy Research Institute (IFPRI) using country-level computable general equilibrium (CGE) and micro-simulation models; (iii) creating an inventory and identifying options to achieve the objectives of CAADP, (iv) prioritizing interventions and costing options to focus on the best returns for an investment plan and addressing the necessary conditions to meet objectives, (v) reviewing implementation options, roles, responsibilities and coordination, and (vi) finalizing and packaging an integrated programme that includes an investment and operational plan and institutional arrangements.

The responsibility of developing and implementing the country CAADP Compact lies in the hands of the CAADP country team. As indicated in the “Guide for CAADP Country Implementation”, the CAADP country team is a “coalition” of ideally five to eight members drawn from the middle to higher level staff from the Ministry of Agriculture, other ministries, the private sector, farmer organisations, civil society and other committed actors. In essence, its composition should reflect a balance of members with formal authority (by virtue of their positions in the ministries or stakeholder organisations), as well as technical competencies and responsibilities and cross-sector representation. *The team is neither intended to be a permanent structure nor even a parallel government body.* It should actually build on existing structures such as an existing agricultural sector coordination unit. The terms of reference of a CAADP country team are shown in Box 3.

Box 3. Terms of reference of the CAADP country team

I.	Promoting CAADP and facilitating CAADP and agricultural sector related awareness, advocacy and training
II.	Developing a road map for the CAADP roundtable and related investment frameworks/programmes and managing a budget for preparing and supervising the roundtable process
III.	Organising and facilitating diagnostic/analytical work, including a list of relevant past and present interventions
IV.	Identifying and recruiting consultants to undertake required studies, approving consultants' outputs and disseminating the findings
V.	Organising and facilitating an all-inclusive country process on priority setting
VI.	Managing the work programme and contributions of other actors, including organising and sequencing the components of the CAADP implementation process
VII.	Stimulating and facilitating the engagement and involvement of various partners and stakeholders including development partners, key institutions, civil society organisations, public–private bodies, etc
VIII.	Coordinating and facilitating interaction and collaboration between the regional level and actors
IX.	Identifying capacity building needs for selected key institutions
X.	Promoting CAADP and programmatic approaches to agriculture and make the case for CAADP in national policy debates and fora
XI.	Facilitating and coordinating CAADP related knowledge management operations including monitoring progress in implementation, based on indicators

Source: Guide for CAADP Country Implementation

One of the key principles of the CAADP initiative is the creation of partnerships and alliances to develop the agricultural sector. Because agriculture is a diverse sector with numerous actors, the

roundtable process is expected to engage all stakeholders in government, private sector, civil society, farmers, and development partners. Accordingly, the CAADP country team is expected to consult widely with stakeholders to accelerate the achievement of the CAADP agenda. Such consultation can be achieved either directly (e.g., through participation in CAADP-related platforms and in the national roundtables) or indirectly through lobbying and advocacy. Other platforms may also be used to build partnerships, e.g., the business-to-business and private-public sector platforms suggested under CAADP Pillar II framework. In some countries, “friends of CAADP” groups have been formed for similar reasons.

Whereas the CAADP country teams are charged with the responsibility of leading the implementation of CAADP agenda in their respective countries, donors (constituted as the Agriculture Donor Working Groups - ADWGs) support the CAADP process both financially and technically. The ADWGs work closely with the CAADP country team and liaise with stakeholders in facilitating the CAADP process. The framework for donor support to the CAADP process is set out in the “Guidelines for Donor Support to CAADP Process at a Country-Level”¹. These guidelines profile donors’ role in the CAADP process as (i) promoting the country-led CAADP process, (ii) working in partnership with CAADP country teams and stakeholders, (iii) building capacity of key stakeholders in the development and implementation of plans to achieve CAADP objectives, (iv) aligning donors’ ongoing agricultural development efforts with the strategy and processes generated by CAADP, (v) co-financing investment programmes, and (vi) participating in monitoring and evaluation to review progress. The framework for the donor engagement with CAADP is based on the “Joint Donor Principles for Agriculture and Rural Development Programmes”², which emphasize ownership, alignment, harmonization, managing for results, and mutual accountability. These principles integrate the commitments made in the “Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness”³ and the “Accra Agenda for Action”⁴. They are also in line with commitments made in the “L’Aquila statement”⁵, which is based upon the principles of strategic co-ordination, support for country-owned processes, a comprehensive approach, use of effective multilateral mechanisms, and sustained commitment. The “Guidelines for Donor Support to CAADP Process at a Country-Level” provide details on how donors participate at each of the four stages of Compact development, namely, (i) engagement and partnership development, (ii) evidence-based planning, (iii) building alliances for investment, and (iv) program implementation, monitoring and evaluation and (v) peer review mechanism⁶.

The strategies for enhancing the role of livestock outlined in Chapter 3 of the CAADP Companion Document are aligned to the CAADP pillars in Chapter 5 of the AU-IBAR’s “Framework for Mainstreaming Livestock in the CAADP Pillars”⁷.

¹See www.donorplatform.org/load/3970 - accessed 3 January 2012.

²See www.donorplatform.org/load/2264 - accessed 3 January 2012.

³See <http://www.oecd.org/dataoecd/15/3/46874580.pdf> - accessed 3 January 2012.

⁴See http://siteresources.worldbank.org/ACCRAEXT/Resources/4700790-1205870632880/AAA-Final-Draft_25-July-2008.pdf - accessed 3 January 2012.

⁵See http://pmindia.nic.in/report1_10.07.09.pdf - accessed 6 January 2012.

⁶For details, see www.donorplatform.org/load/3970 - accessed 3 January 2012.

⁷See www.nepad-caadp.net/pdf/A0586e02.pdf - accessed 28 December 2011.

Table 3 summarizes the priority areas given in the framework under each pillar. Notably, some of the priority areas do not sound like real priority areas, especially those under Pillar IV. Others such as the promotion of disease free zones remain contentious due to implementation costs and the role of wild animals in livestock disease dynamics vis-à-vis the need to promote wildlife-based tourism in many African countries.

In a nutshell, there are positive and negative implications for aligning national agricultural development plans with the CAADP. On the negative side though, although countries are free to develop their plans in their own way, the process is somewhat dictated by CAADP (and by extension, donors) right from the funding of the Compact development process to Compact signing and supervision of the CAADP implementation through the mutual accountability clause. While this approach ensures the coherence and consistency of policies, plans and institutions across the AU member states, it points to some “loss of sovereignty” as countries that do not align their development plans with the CAADP risk losing donor support. On the positive side, however, aligning the national plans with CAADP not only guarantees donor funding but also increases the efficiency of national policy formulation and implementation. This is entrenched by both the process of developing the CAADP Compact (which is based on the principle of institutionalized public participation) and the CAADP peer review mechanism. Both processes present a unique platform to interrogate and emasculate the bureaucracy that had hitherto dominated policy making and implementation amongst the AU member countries.

Table 3. Summary of the provisions of the AU-IBAR's Framework for Mainstreaming Livestock in the CAADP Pillars

CAADP Pillar	Priority area(s)
I: Sustainable Land and Water Management	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> (a) Defining policies regulating natural resources use (b) Promotion of activities that bring about the payment of ecosystem services (c) Documenting and disseminating best practices on sustainable management of natural resources at the interface crop-livestock-wildlife
II: Improving Rural Infrastructure and Market Access	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> (a) Development of infrastructure for communication, transportation, processing and marketing of livestock, livestock products and feeds (b) Development of infrastructure services to ensure access to output markets (c) Development of policy that facilitates access to inputs (d) Promoting the establishment of livestock producers' organizations at local, national and regional levels (e) Stimulating the participation of small farmers in the livestock value chain (f) Promotion of equitable market policies that encourage smallholder investment in livestock production (h) Enhancing trade networks and market intelligence (i) Improving negotiating power and capacity of African countries in international fora for standard setting and trade negotiation (j) Promotion of commodity-based livestock trade (k) Encouragement of investment in developing regional standards that could be mutually recognized under the principle of equivalence of the WTO-SPS agreement
III: Increasing Food Supply and Reducing Hunger	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> (a) Enhance governance of animal health services (b) Promote and integrate crop-livestock production systems

	<p>(c) Improvement of the productive potential of indigenous livestock breeds while taking advantage of the positive attributes such as adaptability to the local environment</p> <p>(d) Investment in biotechnology</p> <p>(e) Securing access to credit and other inputs</p> <p>(f) Activating livestock-based emergency plans and appropriate strategies for reducing vulnerability</p> <p>(g) Promotion of climate change adaptation options</p>
IV: Livestock and Research, Technology, Dissemination and Adoption	<p>(a) Securing access to livestock/animal health services through revamped livestock extension services</p> <p>(b) Capacity building human resources and institutions at all levels to support livestock research, technology development and dissemination</p> <p>(c) Develop and test tools and guidelines for policy formulation, analysis and for investment options</p> <p>(d) Address knowledge gaps about farming systems and livestock management, environmental processes and policy issues relating to the livestock sector and economic development</p>

Source: AU-IBAR (2010)

2.3.2 Purpose of national CAADP Compact and country Investment Plan

2.3.2.1 Purpose of national CAADP Compact

As mentioned earlier, the national CAADP Compact is an outcome of the country roundtable process. At an appropriate stage in the country roundtable process, a special public roundtable meeting is organised where the CAADP Compact is endorsed and signed by representatives of government and country stakeholders (farmer organizations, private sector, civil society, and development partners). According to the “Guide for CAADP Country Implementation”, the signing of the CAADP Compact is usually witnessed by representatives of AU/NEPAD and relevant RECs.

The CAADP Compact demonstrates the commitment by government and its stakeholders to a shared vision and emerging strategies to collectively address the country's agricultural development agenda. Its endorsement obliges all parties to support and work towards increasing investment in the agriculture sector to ten percent of budgetary expenditure in order to achieve an average annual growth target of six percent in the agriculture sector pursuant with the Maputo Declaration. The CAADP Compact therefore provides the general framework for implementing the member country's agricultural development agenda as guided by the CAADP principles and pursuant with the CAADP pillars. The Compact, however, does not provide actual investment programmes but it contains sufficient details of evidence-based priority investment areas to allow specific financial commitment.

Although the CAADP Compacts differ in details in reflection of the differing country contexts and development priorities, a generic Compact is typically a six page document with following key sections:

1. Background for the implementation of CAADP in the country

This section highlights the origins of the CAADP. It points out that CAADP is an African owned agenda and a shared development framework aimed at accelerating growth and eliminating poverty and hunger among African countries through agriculture-led development. The section also explains how the CAADP framework will be implemented in a given country and identifies the country's investment priorities. Finally, the section highlights the CAADP value addition at the country level.

2. Rationale for and use of the country CAADP Compact

This section explains the rationale for country CAADP Compacts as being (i) to set out the parameters for long term partnership in the agricultural sector, (ii) to specify key commitments of government and its stakeholders, and (iii) to clarify expectations with respect to agribusiness and farming communities in order to ensure successful implementation of agricultural sector development programs. The country CAADP Compact aims (i) to increase the effectiveness of programming and the execution of government efforts in the delivery of assistance to the agricultural sector, and (ii) to provide a solid framework under which public investment and development assistance can be scaled up to help meet the short and long term investment needs in the sector.

3. Long term vision and commitment of government with respect to economic development and social transformation

This section highlights the long term vision of government for the general economy and particularly for the agricultural sector. Particular attention is given to the need to meet the country's food and nutrition security goals, to enhance agricultural productivity, employment and income generation, and to promote domestic and international trade.

4. Government's agenda for agricultural growth, poverty reduction and food and nutrition security

The main government agenda is embedded in agricultural transformation and modernization leading to an annual growth rate of the agricultural GDP of six percent, and agriculture's contribution to the annual growth target of GDP of seven percent. This growth rate is envisaged to reduce poverty and increase food and nutrition security.

5. Forging partnerships for the successful implementation of the investment priorities in national agricultural development programmes

The section gives the purpose, principles and modalities of partnerships and highlights explicitly government's, donors', AU's, RECs', private sector's and civil society's commitments under the national agricultural sector development programmes.

6. Implementation of the national agricultural sector development programme

In this section, the institutional mechanism for the implementation of the country's agricultural sector development programmes is explained. The section has the following subsections: (i) coordination and oversight of the implementation process, (ii) funding mobilization and timeframe, (iii) implementation capacity, (iv) ongoing learning, information sharing, monitoring and evaluation, and (v) a post-Compact "roadmap" detailing what has to be done and related roles and responsibilities of the various in-country stakeholders and external players.

7. Endorsement

This is the section in which the CAADP Compact is endorsed. By endorsing the Compact the representatives from government, development partners, AU, RECs, private sector, civil society and farmer organizations solemnly pledge to fulfil the commitments made in the Compact in line with the goals, objectives, principles and modalities set out in the national programmes and aid policy (e.g., the Paris Declaration of Aid Effectiveness and the Accra Agenda for Action).

2.3.2.2 Purpose of investment plans

As noted earlier, the national CAADP Compact does not contain actual investment programmes. Such programmes are usually found in the post-Compact national agricultural investment plans. According to the "Post Compact Review: Guidelines"¹, a national investment plan is a broad plan

¹See <http://www.caadp.net/pdf/POST%20COMPACT%20GUIDELINE%20-%20English.pdf> - accessed 5 January 2012.

that emanates from the goals and targets stipulated in the CAADP Compact. It translates the sector challenges and opportunities into sector objectives and strategies and later details out specific programs that will achieve sector goals, objectives and targets. Such programs detail out key investment areas into concrete packages on how each of these will contribute to attainment of sector goals. Each program can be broadened into sub-programs and later activities are designed and costed. Ideally, the investment plan should be built on clear national/community priorities and expressed development needs. It provides detailed costing within the programs and subprograms with clearly defined financing gap(s) based on up to date financial and economic analyses. In other words, the investment plan indicates the levels of investment and timeframes, and forms the integral tool for identifying the levels of investment required to finance the agricultural sector, pursuant to the CAADP/AU-NEPAD principles and values.

3. CAADP COMPACTS IN THE IGAD COUNTRIES: WHERE'S LIVESTOCK?

3.1. Review of CAADP Compacts

3.1.1 Ethiopia

3.1.1.1 Background

Ethiopia signed its Compact in September 2009. The CAADP process that resulted in the Ethiopian CAADP Compact was guided by the CAADP Focal Point Office in the Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development (MoARD) and involved consultations with Ethiopia's nine regional governments, the private sector, civil society and development partners. The focus of the CAADP process in Ethiopia was to strengthen and add value to the Ethiopian government's Agriculture Development-Led Industrialization (ADLI) strategy under the just-ended five-year Plan for Accelerated and Sustained Development to End Poverty (PASDEP) (2005-2010). The resulting document was the CAADP-compliant Agricultural Sector Policy and Investment Framework (PIF) (2010 to 2020), which operationalizes the Ethiopian CAADP Compact. The PIF provides a strategic framework for the prioritization, and planning of investments that will drive Ethiopia's agricultural growth and development over the next ten years. It is anchored to, and aligned with, the national vision of becoming a middle income country by 2020. The PIF has four pillars which are adapted from CAADP pillars (Box 4). Pillar III adds the aspect of disaster risk management in recognition of Ethiopia's vulnerability to climate-based disasters such as droughts and floods. According to a key informant, Ethiopia, through its Rural Economic Development and Food Security (RED&FS) Sector Working Group, had developed pillars 1 to II before CAADP came along. With CAADP, pillar IV was added and the other three pillars refined to align to the CAADP.

Box 4. Pillars in the Ethiopian CAADP-compliant Agricultural Sector Policy and Investment Framework

Pillar I: Improve natural resources management and utilisation - informs Strategic Objective (SO) 3: To reduce degradation and improve productivity of natural resources.

Pillar II: Improve rural infrastructure, market access and trade capacities – informs SO2: To accelerate agricultural commercialisation and agro-industrial development.

Pillar III: Enhance food security and improve disaster risk management – informs SO4: To achieve universal food security and protect vulnerable households from natural disasters.

Pillar IV: Improve the agricultural research and extension system – informs SO1: To achieve a sustainable increase in agricultural productivity and production

Source: Chanyalew et al. (2010)

3.1.1.2 Where is livestock?

The PIF notes that the agricultural sector accounts for roughly 43 per cent of GDP, and 90 per cent of exports. Livestock production accounts for about 32 per cent of agricultural GDP and it also produces draught animal power that is critical for all farming systems. The document further notes that in all farming systems, livestock are the single most important household asset and that there is a strong correlation between lack of livestock ownership and poverty, particularly among woman-headed households.

With regard to Pillar I on improving natural resources management and utilisation, the aim (as documented by the PIF) is to conserve and utilize Ethiopia's natural resources in a sustainable and productive manner. The role of livestock in this regard is seen in the negative as contributing to rangeland degradation, which threatens the livelihoods of pastoral communities in the lowlands. The PIF therefore calls for "alternative forms of income generation to reduce grazing pressure, and better rangeland management including the use of exclusion areas, forage development and drought preparedness" (paragraph 76). As such, there is no explicit mention of how livestock could positively contribute to environmental conservation, e.g., for example, through use of manure and, draft animal power and mixed crop-livestock farming. Although the PIF recognizes the challenges brought about to Ethiopian farmers and pastoralists by climate change, it just calls for the development of more robust and resilient farming systems that are able to adapt to a range of possible climate change outcomes as they unfold over the life of the PIF and beyond. The form that these "robust and resilient farming systems" will take is not specified and neither does the PIF propose any livestock-related investments in this regard.

Pillar II on improvement of rural infrastructure, market access and trade capacities also does not explicitly mention the role of livestock in achieving the goals of this pillar. However, mention is made on the need to encourage private sector participation in commercial agricultural production [which one can assume also includes livestock], marketing, agro-processing and farm input supply. This commercialization is expected to (i) increase the amount of agricultural produce [which presumably includes livestock products] entering the marketing channels, (ii) increased diversification of smallholder production into higher value crop and livestock products, and (iii) increased supply of raw materials [which might include livestock products such as raw milk, meat, eggs, hides and skins] to the industrial sector. The main investment to be made in the next five years is the development of 3.3 ha of land for commercial agriculture [which could also include livestock production]. However, it is worth noting that Ethiopia currently lacks a comprehensive livestock development policy [see paragraph 37 of PIF] that would otherwise promote the commercialization of livestock. In addition, there is no formal institution that is responsible for the development of pastoral and agro-pastoral areas [see paragraph 51 of PIF], whose major economic activity revolves around livestock.

Pillar III on enhancing food security and improving disaster risk management only mentions the need for the provision of safety nets to reduce the number of chronically food insecure households requiring food aid and other forms of assistance. The role of livestock in this regard is not mentioned. As such, there are no livestock-related investments mentioned.

With regard to Pillar IV on improving agricultural research and extension system to increase agricultural productivity and production, again, no specific reference is made of livestock. The main objective of this pillar is to increase productivity and production as a prerequisite for food security and agricultural-led industrialisation. Productivity gains are expected to come from closing the gap between leading farmers [presumably including livestock keepers] and the majority, whose productivity performance is said to be far below potential. The following investments are proposed to increase production and productivity of Ethiopian agriculture [broadly defined to include livestock]: (i) up-scaling proven and appropriate agricultural technologies, (ii) revitalizing agricultural research and extension system, (iii) improving supply channels for farm inputs, and (iv) dissemination of simple agronomic packages including the use of improved seeds, fertilisers and fertility management, weed and pest control, and improved harvest and post-harvest management. However, the main focus will be on the high potential areas where the investment is likely to generate the highest returns. Given that most of the Ethiopian livestock herd is in the lowlands among the pastoral and agro-pastoral communities (see Sandord and Ashley, 2008), the proposed investments may not benefit the livestock sector in any significant way.

Although the PIF does not adequately deal with livestock issues, the post-CAADP Compact roadmap¹ proposes the following activities for the livestock sector under Pillar IV: (i) improving the use water to produce high value export crops and livestock feeds to increase exports of animal products, (ii) strengthening the livestock sector within MoARD by establishing a livestock sector with a dedicated and strong team, (iii) supporting breed improvement, including artificial insemination services, (iv) developing a dairy sub-sector development policy, (v) strengthening support to animal health and nutrition issues with a view to promoting private sector participation through a review of the livestock breeding and animal health policies and support to their implementation, (vi) supporting pastoralists by better linking them to market opportunities, (vii) establishing community-based water and forage reserves in drought-prone areas, and (viii) clarifying the responsibility of developing pastoral areas. The data that informed these priority investments are not expressly provided.

In summary, the PIF does not adequately capture livestock issues. Even where livestock are mentioned, no details are given and the document focuses mainly on production and productivity. The post-CAADP roadmap offers more information in this regard, though the information is also not well elaborated.

3.1.1.3 Investment in livestock

The PIF presents budget estimates for the period 2010 to 2020 broken down into six programmes (Table 4). The total budget outlay is ETB 195.2 billion (or US\$ 11.2 billion)². While some aspects of livestock are definitely captured in the six programmes, it is difficult to know (from the way the budget is presented) how much money is allocated to livestock generally and particularly to poor livestock keepers. It is worth noting that disaster risk management and food security takes

¹See www.caadp.net/pdf/Road%20Map%20detailed%20April%204.pdf - accessed 6 January 2012.

²Using current exchange rate of 1US\$=ETB 17.36.

the largest proportion of the budget at 66.1 percent. This reflects the commitment of the Ethiopian government to address food security problems that have plagued the country for a long time. Most of those highly vulnerable to food insecurity in the Africa Horn are almost exclusively poor livestock keepers. It is therefore expected that a large proportion of the budget outlay will go to poor livestock keepers.

Table 4. PIF budget estimates (2010-2020)

Programme	Year (ETB Million)										Total	Share (%)
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10		
Agricultural development	1,135	1,270	1,406	1,551	1,708	1,879	2,068	2,275	2,502	2,752	18,546	9.5
Agricultural marketing	287	321	355	392	431	475	522	575	632	695	4,685	2.4
Natural resource development	1,840	2,059	2,280	2,514	2,769	3,047	3,352	3,687	4,056	4,462	30,066	15.4
Disaster risk management & food security	7,900	8,836	9,785	10,792	11,883	13,077	14,387	15,827	17,410	19,151	129,048	66.1
Natural resources & agricultural research	693	775	859	947	1,043	1,147	1,262	1,389	1,528	1,680	11,323	5.8
Support services	96	107	118	131	144	158	174	192	211	232	1,563	0.8
Total	11,951	13,368	14,803	16,326	17,978	19,784	21,766	23,944	26,339	28,973	195,232	

Source: FDRE (2010)

3.1.2 Kenya

3.1.2.1 Background

Kenya signed its CAADP Compact in October 2009. The Compact was derived from the Kenya's Agricultural Sector Development Strategy (ASDS) for the period 2010 to 2020 (GoK, 2010a). The ASDS itself was a revision of the Strategy for Revitalizing Agriculture (SRA) of 2004-2008, which had been developed to operationalize the 2003-2008 five-year development plan entitled "Economic Recovery Strategy for Employment and Wealth Creation" (ERS). At the time of the revision of the SRA in 2008, Kenya had just developed a new economic blueprint, the Vision 2030, to replace the ERS. The revised SRA (which came to be known as the ASDS) was therefore aligned to the Vision 2030. In the latter document, Kenya aimed to be a newly industrialized middle income country by 2030.

The overall objective of the ASDS is to achieve an annual agricultural sector growth rate of seven percent over the next five years in order to contribute to the 10 percent economic growth target envisaged under the economic pillar of the Vision 2030. The strategic mission for the sector as stated in the ASDS is "[a]n innovative, commercially oriented and modern agriculture" (p. viii). Developed through a consultative process involving sector ministries, development partners, private sector and key stakeholders, the ASDS has six thematic areas, five of which fit into the CAADP four-pillar framework and one that is cross-cutting (Table 5).

Table 5. ASDS thematic areas and corresponding CAADP pillars

ASDS Thematic Area	Corresponding CAADP Pillar
1. Environment, Sustainable Land and Natural Resource Management	I
2. Agribusiness, Access to Markets and Value Addition	II
3. Food and Nutrition Security	III
4. Research and Extension	IV
5. Legal, Regulatory and Institutional Reforms	Cross-cutting
6. Inputs and Financial Services	III

Source: Kenya CAADP Compact

A closer look at the ASDS reveals that the six thematic areas are grouped into two main strategic foci, namely, (i) subsector strategic focus, which constitutes (a) crops and land development subsector, (b) livestock subsector, (c) fisheries subsector and (d) cooperatives subsector; and (ii) production factors strategic focus involving (a) improving water resources and irrigation development, (b) land use, (c) developing northern Kenya and other arid lands, (d) improving management of environment and natural resources, (e) developing river basins and large water body resources, and (f) forestry and wildlife development.

The distribution of the thematic areas across the two strategic foci may have been occasioned by the need to cater for the large number of agricultural sector ministries¹ in Kenya. Although the approach ensures that each ministry is catered for in the ASDS, it makes it hard to follow, link or even to identify the CAADP four-pillar framework. Thus, the ASDS does not seem to have adequately mainstreamed the CAADP framework. The implication of this failure is that it is difficult to benchmark the progress of CAADP implementation. Additionally, the haphazard organization of the ASDS does not easily lend itself to peer-review particularly considering that the document fails to expressly institutionalize the CAADP four-pillar framework or a reasonable but practical form of it. The result is a “business as usual” outcome, which certainly conflicts with the stated mission of transforming “Kenya’s agriculture into a profitable, commercially-oriented and internationally and regionally competitive economic activity...” (p. xii). Such a mission requires both critical and innovative thinking “outside the box” in order to develop strategies that will urgently transform Kenya’s agriculture from subsistence oriented to a competitive agri-business.

3.1.2.2 Where is livestock?

The ASDS devotes sections 2.4.2 (pages 14-15), 3.5.1 (page 22), and 5.2 (pages 35-42) to livestock. Section 2.4.2 gives the characteristics of livestock production in Kenya noting that the livestock sector contributes to the food and cash needs of farmers, provides employment to about 10 million people and contributes up to seven percent to the GDP and 17 percent to the agricultural GDP. The section also presents livestock statistics shown in Table 6.

¹There are 10 agricultural sector ministries in Kenya namely, Agriculture, Livestock Development, Lands, Water Resources and Irrigation, Fisheries Development, Forestry and Wildlife, Environment and Mineral Resources, Regional Development Authorities, Development of Northern Kenya and Other Arid Lands, and Cooperative Development.

Table 6. Livestock statistics given in the ASDS

Species	Population (Million)	Annual production	Value (KShs Billion at 2008 prices)
Dairy cattle	3.5	5.1 billion litres - milk	100
Beef cattle	9	32,000 tonnes - meat	62.1
Sheep	10	84,000 tonnes - meat	14
Goats	13		
Poultry	28	20 tonnes - meat	3.5
		1.3 billion - eggs	9.7
Pigs	-	12,000 tonnes - meat	1.2
Apiculture	-	14,600 tonnes - honey	4.4
		140 tonnes - beeswax	
Camels	0.9	7,000 tonnes - meat	1
		200 million litres - milk	2

Source: GoK (2010a)

Section 3.5.1 on page 22 focuses on the features of agricultural services with respect to livestock pests and disease control. It notes that livestock diseases and pests are still a major constraint to livestock production and export trade in Kenya. Section 5.2 identifies the key challenges and constraints in the livestock sector and proposes the following interventions: (i) review of policy, legal and institutional frameworks, (ii) improving livestock productivity, (iii) integrating development and management of rangelands, (iv) improving animal health and quality assurance services, (v) improving access to markets, (vi) establishing a centrally coordinated livestock database, (vii) implementing the flagship disease-free zones project. Table 8 shows how these interventions relate to the four CAADP pillars.

Table 7. Relationship between livestock interventions in Kenya and the four CAADP pillars

Intervention	Corresponding CAADP pillar	Proposed investment(s)
Review of policy, legal and institutional frameworks	Cross-cutting	-Legal, policy and institutional reforms
Improving livestock productivity	IV	-Animal breeding programmes -Feed and nutrition development programmes -Strengthening livestock extension services
Integrating development and management of rangelands	I	-Restoring rangelands productivity through reseeding and range pitting, bush control, soil conservation, and water rehabilitation and development -Rain water harvesting -Supporting ranches to establish feedlots, breeding stock, conserve forage, and develop ranch infrastructure
Improving animal health and quality assurance services	II	-Establishment of disease-free zones -Building farmers' capacity to adopt and use appropriate and cost-effective livestock husbandry practices -Reform the legal, regulatory and institutional frameworks -Build capacity for delivery of animal health and quality assurance services -Domesticate and implement sanitary measures according to regional and international standards
Improving access to markets	II	-Establishing disease-testing systems along stock routes to the markets -Developing road and rail transport -Improving supply of electricity and communication systems -Capacity building in the livestock

		market value chain -Organizing livestock producers into marketing groups -Supporting livestock marketing information systems -Supporting value addition to livestock products
Establishing a centrally coordinated livestock database	II	-Analysis of livestock census -Establishing a database to monitor demand and supply of livestock and livestock products
Implementing the flagship disease-free zones project	II, III	-Livestock breeding -Range improvement -Establishment of export abattoirs and livestock marketing and marketing infrastructure

Source: Author

Although the proposed interventions (Table 7) are not perfectly aligned to the CAADP four-pillar framework, they address the main constraints to livestock production, marketing and trade in Kenya. However, these proposals do not explicitly address pastoral livelihoods particularly in regard to poor livestock keepers and women. Additionally, the interventions are based on the traditional pre-occupation of policy makers, namely, to improve livestock production/productivity and marketing, which in most cases benefits the better-off livestock keepers. Poverty reducing growth issues particularly those dealing with resource-poor smallholder livestock keepers who might be at the fringes of deprivation due to either internal or external shocks (e.g., capacitating pastoralists who have fallen out of pastoralism due to one reason or the other, and understanding their operational objectives and livelihood systems) are not fully articulated in the document. The implication of this is that the ASDS is likely to entrench rural poverty through the marginalization of resource-poor smallholder livestock keepers. The data that informed these investments are not provided in the document.

3.1.2.3 Investment in livestock

Kenya's investment plan to operationalize the ASDS (and therefore the CAADP Compact) is entitled the "Agricultural Sector Development Strategy Medium Term Investment Plan (MTIP) (2010-2015)". It is divided into six investment pillars in line with the ASDS as shown in Table 8.

The total budget is KShs 247 billion (or US\$ 2.9 billion)¹ spread over five years. The investment outlay for the livestock sector is embedded in the total budget of the six investment pillars.

Table 8. MTIP costs by investment pillar and year (2010-2015)

Investment pillar	Year (KShs Billion)					Total	Share (%)
	1	2	3	4	5		
Productivity, commercialization and competitiveness	13.20	16.72	17.75	19.58	21.67	88.92	36.0
Private sector participation	4.78	6.13	6.40	6.65	6.92	30.88	12.5
Sustainable land and natural resource management	18.55	19.73	20.78	21.81	22.87	103.74	42.0
Delivery of agricultural services	0.46	0.50	0.50	0.50	0.51	2.47	1.0
Market access and trade	0.44	2.86	2.16	5.94	8.34	19.75	8.0
Coordination and implementation	0.19	0.23	0.24	0.27	0.30	1.24	0.5
Total	37.05	46.93	46.93	54.34	61.76	247.00	

Source: GoK (2010b)

The MTIP budget is further disaggregated according to the main agro-ecological zones as shown in Table 9. The ASALs are set to receive KShs 143 billion over a 5-year period, which accounts for 58 percent of the total MTIP budget. Most of this money will necessarily go to livestock and poor livestock keepers given that livestock keeping is the major economic activity in the ASALs. The allocation of 58 percent of the MTIP budget to ASALs demonstrates Kenya's commitment to the development of these areas, which have been marginalized by successive governments since the colonial period.

¹At the prevailing exchange rate of 1US\$=KShs 85.

Table 9. MTIP budget by agro-ecological zones

Agro-ecological zone	Budget (KShs Billion)	Share (%)
High rainfall areas	104	42
Semi-arid lands	106	43
Arid lands	37	15
Total for ASALs	143	58

Source: GoK (2010b)

3.1.3 Uganda

3.1.3.1 Background

Uganda signed its Compact in March 2010. The Ugandan Compact is derived from the Agricultural Sector Development Strategy and Investment Plan (DSIP) (2011-2015), under the National Development Plan (NDP). The goal of the Compact is to support the development and implementation of a coherent agricultural sector agenda by (i) helping to define a long term framework to guide the planning and implementation of current and future DSIP programmes, (ii) identifying strategic options and sources of poverty reducing growth for the agricultural sector over the next five years, (iii) developing existing and new strategic analysis and knowledge support systems to facilitate peer review, dialogue, and evidence-based planning and implementation of agricultural sector policies and strategies.

The vision of the DSIP is to have a competitive, profitable and sustainable agricultural sector. The DSIP therefore provides a roadmap to guide government, the private sector, farmer organisations, other civil society stakeholders and development partners to make public interventions that will help meet the key objectives of growth, food security and poverty reduction in the agricultural sector. The overall objective of the DSIP is to increase rural incomes and livelihoods through improved household food and nutrition security. The specific objectives are to (i) sustainably enhance factor productivity (land, labour, capital) in crops, livestock, and fisheries, (ii) develop and sustain markets for primary and secondary agricultural products within Uganda, the region and beyond, (iii) develop favourable legal, policy and institutional frameworks that facilitate private sector expansion and increased profitability along the entire value chain, and (iv) engender the functioning of Ministry of Agriculture, Animal Industry and Fisheries (MAAIF) and Agencies as modern, client-oriented organisations within an innovative, accountable and supportive environment. The DSIP is packaged into four programmes in pursuant with the four specific objectives. The programmes are however not explicitly cast into the four CAADP pillars. An attempt to do is shown in Table 10. It is worth noting that programmes 3 and 4 do not fall within the four CAADP pillars but can be considered to be cross-cutting in nature as they propose to respectively improve the enabling environment for the agricultural sector and develop the institutions. Programme 4 is strictly not a “programme” in the actual sense of the word; it merely involves a reorganization of the MAAIF and its agents.

Table 10. DSIP programmes and their alignment to CAADP pillars

Programme	Operational objectives	Corresponding CAADP pillar
1. Enhancing production and productivity	(i) Improving agricultural research and technology development	IV
	(ii) Improving advisory services and better delivery of improved technology	
	(iii) Promotion of labour saving technologies and mechanisation	I
	(iv) Enhancing productivity of land through sustainable management of soil and water resources	
	(v) Increased use of water for agricultural production	III
	(vi) Improving agricultural livelihoods in Northern Uganda	
	(vii) Promotion of selected strategic enterprises	
2. Market access and value addition	(i) Improving capacity for regulation and enforcement especially in safety standards and quality assurance (ii) Improving access to high quality inputs, planting and stocking materials (iii) Increasing participation in value addition activities (iv) Expanding network of rural market infrastructure (v) Strengthening farmers' organizations (vi) Improving disease, pest and vector control	II
3. Improving the enabling environment for the agricultural sector	(i) Establishing a clear and predictable policy framework (ii) Undertaking efficient planning and policy responsibilities of new policies, strategies, programmes and projects (iii) Improving public education and communication around key agriculture and natural resource issues (iv) Enhancing public coordination responsibilities in a coherent manner (v) Strengthening agricultural statistics service (vi) Improving capacity for decision making in planning and budgeting processes	Cross-cutting
4. Institutional development	(i) Strengthening and appropriately configuring and equipping of MAAIF and related agencies (ii) Relocation of MAAIF headquarter to Kampala (iii) Improving the productivity of sector personnel	Cross-cutting

Source: Adapted from DSIP

3.1.3.2 Where is livestock?

Section 2.2.2 under “Agricultural Sector Performance” on pages 23 to 28 of the DSIP is devoted to livestock. It is noted that livestock in Uganda play a key role in raising household incomes and providing animal-based proteins. According to the Uganda Bureau of Statistics (UBOS, 2007) households that keep livestock tend to be generally less poor than those that do not. The section goes on to give livestock and production statistics and associated constraints. The document indicates that pastoralists and communal grazers hold about 95 percent of all cattle in Uganda and produce 85 percent of all the milk in the country, most of it for own consumption.

There is no explicit indication in the DSIP of how livestock could contribute to the four CAADP pillars. This could be due to the failure of DSIP to organize the programmes according to the CAADP pillars. With respect to the budget given on pages 93-95, the DSIP lumps all the subsectors of agriculture together. For example, although the DSIP notes that there is an urgent need to develop a pastoral development policy in order to stabilize and increase production and productivity of pastoral activities, what would have been the vote for pastoral development in Northern Uganda (where pastoralism is widely practiced) is indicated in the budget as “Agriculture in Northern Uganda”. Looking at the entire budget it is difficult to know how much money is allocated to crops, livestock, forestry or fisheries. This makes it difficult to track down both allocation and expenditure. The implication of this is that the livestock sector, which has traditionally been underfunded in many countries, may continue to be starved of funding in favour of the other subsectors of agriculture.

Table 11 shows the proposed livestock-related investments extracted from the four DSIP programmes. Whereas all the proposed interventions deal with livestock, DSIP Programme I specifically aims to develop agricultural livelihoods in Northern Uganda through, among other things, capacity building of farmers, developing infrastructure and developing a community-based animal health programme. Northern Uganda is mainly inhabited by pastoralist communities including the Karimojong, the Langi and the Bahima. The emphasis on developing Northern Uganda is therefore a step in the right direction as it addresses the historical marginalization of these areas by various governments since Uganda’s independence in 1962.

However, the current focus of the DSIP on maximising livestock production alone needs to be replaced by one that recognises the multiple contributions that livestock make to livelihoods. This will require a greater understanding of who are the clients of livestock development efforts/services and what their priorities are. Lack of such understanding is the reason why there has been only limited uptake of ‘improved’ livestock technologies, which have largely been inappropriate to meeting the needs of livestock keepers in general and pastoralists, in particular. It is hoped that the proposed pastoral development policy will address these issues and tone down the traditional pre-occupation by policy makers of aiming to maximize livestock production to increase the marketed surplus.

With regard to the development of water for livestock proposed in the DSIP, improving water sources for livestock is critical particularly in the arid part of Northern Uganda. However, experience with public investment in valley dams shows that both project implementation and use

of the dams can be problematic if communities are not actively involved in designing, as well as managing, the projects. Inappropriately sited valley dams can cause social problems and even conflicts and may not meet the needs of pastoralists who need to migrate seasonally to find grazing lands. The investments presented in Table 11 have the potential to support smallholder livestock development particularly in regard to disease control, advisory, water provision, marketing, value addition and legal and policy review.

The data that informed these investments are provided in the bibliography section in the DSIP. A sample of these references is given below:

1. Benin, S., J. Thurlow, X. Diao, A. Kebba and N. Ofwono (2007). Agricultural growth and investment options for poverty reduction in Uganda. IFPRI Discussion Paper No. 790. International Food Policy Research Institute, Washington, DC.
2. EPRC (2009). Uganda: Agriculture Sector Public Expenditure Review, Phase 3. Draft, Kampala.
3. MAAIF (2010). Consultancy to formulate an animal health master plan in the Ministry of Agriculture, Animal Industry and Fisheries. MAAIF, Draft Report. Entebbe.
4. UBOS (2009). The Livestock Census. Preliminary Findings. Kampala.

Table 11. Proposed investments in the livestock sector according to the four DSIP programmes

DSIP programme	Corresponding CAADP pillar	Proposed investment(s)
1. Enhancing production and productivity	IV (Research & technology development & dissemination)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Improve pest, vector and disease control infrastructure -Strengthening advisory services and advanced technology dissemination -Capacity building for pest, vector and disease control -Construction of quarantine stations at strategic points -Installing of a traceability system -Developing and promoting appropriate technologies including animal traction
	I (Sustainable land & water management)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Irrigation development for livestock -Constructing 25 new valley tanks -Increasing water storage through surface water reservoirs, gravity flow or ground water exploitation -Capacity building in water use
	III (Improved food security)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Developing agricultural livelihoods in Northern Uganda: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> (a) Improving advisory service delivery to farmer groups (b) Developing a community animal health programme (c) Capacity building of farmers (d) Support agricultural input supply chain (e) Support value addition (f) Develop infrastructure, e.g., markets, stock routes, roads, etc (g) Strengthen local government departments

2. Market access and value addition	II	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Improving the policy and regulatory environment -Establishing procedures for risk assessment & management -Improving implementation of standards -Strengthening inspection systems and institutions -Enhanced enforcement of standards & contracts -Improvement of infrastructure (markets, laboratories, roads, etc) -Promoting collective marketing (through farmer organizations)
3. Improving the enabling environment for the agricultural sector	Cross-cutting	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Review of national policy framework, e.g., livestock policy including livestock in pastoral areas -Developing a national food and agricultural statistics system -Establishing a food and agricultural statistics databank -Establishing a climate change surveillance system
4. Institutional development	Cross-cutting	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Reconfiguring MAAIF & its agencies -Relocation of MAAIF to Kampala -Capacity building in MAAIF

Source: Author

3.1.3.3 Investment in livestock

Uganda's DSIP is financed through the Medium Term Expenditure Framework (MTEF). The MTEF is summarized in page 95 of the DSIP. It is organized into four sub-programmes to correspond to the four DSIP programmes as shown in Table 12. The total budget is UShs 2,089.3 billion (or US\$ 0.9 billion)¹. Like in the case of Kenya, the budget for the livestock sector is embedded within the sub-programmes. The budget outlays, for example, for water and infrastructure development, value addition, agricultural statistics and pest and disease control partly affect the performance of the livestock sector. The only provision which is purely livestock-related is "Agriculture in Northern Uganda", which is allocated 3.2 percent of the budget. However, given the way the budget is presented, it is difficult to know the total amount of money allocated to the livestock sector generally and particularly to poor livestock keepers.

¹At the prevailing exchange rate of 1US\$=2337.3 UShs.

Table 12. Summary of Uganda's MTEF-related budget

Sub Programme	Year (US\$ Million)					Total	Share (%)
	2010/11	2011/12	2012/13	2013/14	2014/15		
1. Production and productivity							
1.1 Agricultural technology development	42,680	46,948	51,643	56,807	62,488	260,566	12.5
1.2 Agricultural advisory services	90,320	99,352	109,287	120,216	132,238	551,413	26.4
1.3 Pest and disease control	30,811	33,892	37,281	41,009	45,110	188,104	9.0
1.4 Sustainable land management	2,616	2,878	3,165	3,482	3,830	15,971	0.8
1.5 Water for agricultural production	9,500	10,450	11,495	12,645	13,909	57,998	2.8
1.6 Promotion of labor-saving technologies	3,600	3,960	4,356	4,792	5,271	21,978	1.1
1.7 Agriculture in Northern Uganda	10,781	11,859	13,045	14,350	15,784	65,819	3.2
1.8 Strategic enterprises	15,000	16,500	18,150	19,965	21,962	91,577	4.4
Sub-total	205,308	225,839	248,423	273,265	300,591	1,253,426	60.0
2. Market access and value addition							
2.1 Regulatory services	31,500	34,650	38,115	41,927	46,119	192,311	9.2
2.2 Inputs and stocking materials	15,255	16,781	18,459	20,304	22,335	93,133	4.5

2.3 Value addition	45,000	49,500	54,450	59,895	65,885	274,730	13.1
2.4 Rural market infrastructure	10,000	11,000	12,100	13,310	14,641	61,051	2.9
2.5 Promotion of collective marketing	6,420	7,062	7,768	8,545	9,400	39,195	1.9
Sub-total	108,175	118,993	130,892	143,981	158,379	660,419	31.6
3. Enabling environment							
3.1 Policy framework	500	550	605	666	732	3,053	0.1
3.2 Policy & planning capacity	7,290	8,019	8,821	9,703	10,673	44,506	2.1
3.3 Public education	1,500	1,650	1,815	1,997	2,196	9,158	0.4
3.4 Coordination in the sector	2,500	2,750	3,025	3,328	3,660	15,263	0.7
3.5 Agricultural statistics	3,340	3,674	4,041	4,446	4,890	20,391	1.0
3.6 Climate change capacity	3,500	3,850	4,235	4,659	5,124	21,368	1.0
Sub-total	18,630	20,493	22,542	24,797	27,276	113,738	5.4
4. Institutional strengthening							
4.1 MAAIF & agencies strengthening	1,200	1,320	1,452	1,597	1,757	7,326	0.4
4.2 MAAIF HQ relocation	2,643	2,907	3,198	3,518	3,870	16,136	0.8
4.3 Productivity of personnel increased	6,260	6,886	7,575	8,332	9,165	38,218	1.8
Sub-total	10,103	11,113	12,225	13,447	14,792	61,680	3.0
Grand Total	342,216	376,438	414,081	455,489	501,038	2,089,263	

Source: ROU (2010a)

3.2 Comparison of CAADP documents with other agricultural and livestock-related policy documents

3.2.1 Ethiopia

The main documents reviewed include the Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper I entitled “Sustainable Development and Poverty Reduction Program” (SDPRP) (2002-2005) and the PRSP II entitled “Plan for Accelerated and Sustained Development to End Poverty” (PASDEP) (2005-2010). PASDEP has recently been replaced by the ten-year CAADP-compliant policy dubbed the “Agricultural Sector Policy and Investment Framework” (PIF) (2010-2020).

Following the failure of the World Bank and International Monetary Fund (IMF)-led structural adjustment policies (SAPs) of the 1990s to spur meaningful private sector-led economic growth and development in low income countries, the Bretton Woods institutions came up with the PRSPs in 2000. As the name suggests, the PRSPs aimed to redress the problem of poverty that had spiraled out of control and the worsening macro-economic environment in most low income countries at the turn of the millennium. The low income countries were required (by the World Bank, IMF and bilateral donors) to produce a PRSP as a condition for either debt relief through the Heavily Indebted Poor Countries (HIPC) initiative or accessing monetary aid. The PRSPs were meant to help aid recipient countries meet the then newly crafted Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) through a country-driven, result-oriented, comprehensive and participatory development agenda.

3.2.1.1 The SDPRP

Ethiopia developed its PRSP I in August 2002 and termed it the SDPRP. The overarching objective of the SDPRP was to reduce poverty by enhancing rapid economic growth while at the same time maintaining macroeconomic stability. In this regard, the SDPRP was anchored within four main pillars, (i) agriculture development-led industrialization (ADLI), (ii) justice system and civil service reform, (iii) decentralization and empowerment, and (iv) capacity building in public and private sectors. The ADLI [the main pre-occupation of this paper] was crafted as a long-term strategy to achieve faster growth and economic development by making use of labor-intensive but land augmenting technologies to improve food supply to enhance food security. During the first stage of ADLI, agriculture was expected to play a leading role in the growth of the economy, leading to industrial development in the longer term through strengthened production and consumption linkages. In order to achieve this, agriculture had to be made internationally competitive and commercialized through investment in agricultural research, credit provision, water management, training, and the development of agricultural input and output markets, cooperatives and the pastoral economy. The priority action areas in agriculture and rural development pursuant with the SDPRP are shown Box 5. The enabling non-agricultural sectors include education, health, water supply, road and transport services and small and medium industries development.

Box 5. Priority areas of action in agriculture and rural development proposed in the SDPRP

1. Design and disseminate a menu of agricultural extension packages that take into account agro-ecological diversity, opportunities for specialization, and likely market demand
2. Technical and vocational training in agriculture for extension workers
3. Strengthening agricultural research to generate appropriate technologies to improve agricultural productivity
4. Farmer training
5. Improve agricultural marketing system through:
 - Support to cooperatives
 - Introduction of warehouse receipt scheme and commodity exchange
 - Developing and introducing crop quality standards
 - Improving the supply of market information
 - Strengthening private sector in agricultural marketing
6. Support to micro-finance institutions to improve rural financial services
7. Strengthening livestock development through forage development, improved breed, veterinary services and livestock marketing to improve livelihoods, diversify income, insure food security, and strengthen exports.
8. Supporting water harvesting and expansion of small-scale irrigation
9. Improve rural land management to ensure tenure security
10. Encourage out-grower schemes
11. Develop appropriate legal and procedural framework for those private sector who wish to rent land from farmers

Source: SDPRP

A casual look at Box 5 shows that the SDPRP attempted to address livestock issues by proposing the development of forages, improved livestock breeds, provision of veterinary services and improving livestock marketing. Page 58 of the SDPRP proposes to develop the pastoral areas. Noting that the life of the people in these regions is based on livestock keeping characterized by livestock mobility, the SDPRP proposed to integrate the supply of drinking water and that of pasture so as to accelerate and improve animal resources in these regions. In addition, it proposed the development of institutions to administer pasture lands among pastoral communities, without violating long standing indigenous practices. On the other hand, on Page 72 the SDPRP proposed to settle pastoralists in order to enable the provision of the necessary infrastructure for sustained development arguing that selective settlement programs are the only viable options in the long run. The following strategies were envisaged in the SDPRP to achieve pastoral development:

- (a) Sedentarization of mobile pastoralists on voluntary basis
- (b) Provision of mobile social services including health and education
- (c) Improvement of indigenous breeds
- (d) Improvement of veterinary services
- (e) Improvement of forage production through the provision of adaptable forage species such as grass, shrubs, trees & legumes
- (f) Improvement of livestock marketing
- (g) Awareness creation & control encroachment to marginal lands
- (h) Strengthening livestock early warning system
- (i) Initiating and conducting community-based rangeland management practices
- (j) Improving infrastructure (road, communication) market, access to education & training and human health services
- (k) Strengthening and revitalizing local traditional institutions
- (l) Encouraging the establishment of viable pastoral associations
- (m) Establishing research institutions and rural technology promotion centers
- (n) Improving the provision of appropriate and strong extension services creating strong linkage between research institutions and the pastoral community.

Although the SDPRP addresses above-mentioned livestock and pastoral issues, it does not seem to appreciate the multiple livelihood services that are derived from livestock, e.g., generation of cash, savings and insurance, as a source of animal proteins, manure and draft animal power (see Pica-Ciamarra et al., 2011). As such, the document does not propose any strategies to promote/amplify these livelihood services. This state of affairs might have arisen from the tendency of policy makers promoting the maximization of livestock production to increase marketed surplus without focusing on the livelihood options and resource endowment of rural livestock keepers.

Although the SDPRP does not attempt to group the action areas into thematic pillars, the priority areas closely compare with the provisions of CAADP. For example, action areas 1-4 correspond with CAADP pillar IV, 5-7 & 10, to CAADP pillar II, while 8, 9 & 11 correspond to CAADP pillar I. The overall objective of the SDPRP is to reduce poverty and increase food security (CAADP pillar III).

3.2.1.2 The PASDEP

Ethiopia's PRSP II or the PASDEP (2005-2010) succeeded the SDPRP and was published in September 2006. The PASDEP aimed to build on the success of the SDPRP, namely a 6.4 percent economic growth, an increase of one percent of GDP on pro-poor spending, significant investment in infrastructure (particularly roads), and improved human development (e.g., the gross enrolment rate rose from 62 to 80 percent over the SDPRP period). Thus, the PASDEP built on the

development strategies pursued under the SDPRP but laid a greater emphasis on commercialization of agriculture and enhancing private sector development, industry, urban development and a scaling-up of efforts to achieve the MDGs. However, the goal of poverty reduction still remained a major focus. The PASDEP was anchored within eight pillars:

- (a) Building all-inclusive implementation capacity
- (b) A massive push to accelerate growth
- (c) Creating the balance between economic development and population growth
- (d) Unleashing the potentials of Ethiopia's women
- (e) Strengthening the infrastructure backbone of the country
- (f) Strengthening human resource development
- (g) Managing risk and volatility
- (h) Creating employment opportunities

The growth acceleration pillar was to be driven by two main thrusts, namely, (i) commercialization of agriculture, and (ii) private sector development. The commercialization of agriculture was to be achieved through the intensification of marketable farm products -both for domestic and export markets, and by both small and large farmers. The strategy would include the shift to higher-valued crops, promoting niche high-value export crops, a focus on selected high-potential areas, facilitating the commercialization of agriculture, supporting the development of large-scale commercial agriculture, and better integrating farmers with markets - both locally and internationally. To achieve this, the following instruments were proposed in the PASDEP:

- (a) Construction of farm-to-market roads
- (b) Developing agricultural credit markets
- (c) Developing specialized extension services for differentiated agricultural zones and types of commercial agriculture
- (d) Development of national business plans and tailored packages for specialized export crops (such as spices, cut flowers, fruits and vegetables)
- (e) Supporting small-scale irrigation and area irrigation through multi-purpose dams
- (f) Measures to improve land tenure security, and to make land available where feasible for large-scale commercial farming
- (g) Reforms to improve the availability of fertilizer and seeds
- (h) Better-functioning agricultural markets for both inputs and outputs, and institutions, including improved value chains, information flows, quality and standards support, and cooperatives that strengthen the position of farmers in the market.

Under the PASDEP, the pastoral areas were to receive special consideration. This would involve designing customized programs such as informal community-based schools, mobile outreach health services, improved veterinary services, livestock breed improvement, marketing, early-warning systems, construction of water points, and development of infrastructure (such as roads, communications, and small-scale irrigation).

A closer look at these instruments shows that they do not differ significantly from the action areas proposed by the SDPRP (see Box 5 and the text thereof).

The strategy for accelerating private sector development [the only major departure with the SDPRP] would follow five main elements:

(a) Strengthening the institutional framework to enable private initiative, e.g., simplification of business processes and licensing requirements, strengthening the regulatory framework, financial reforms, divestiture, etc, (b) Exploitation of niche markets, (c) Increasing exports to about 20 percent of GDP, (d) Pursuing a geographically differentiated development strategy, and (e) Strengthening rural-urban linkages as growth poles.

Chapter 7 (pages 67 to 108) of the PASDEP is entirely devoted to agriculture [broadly defined to including livestock, forestry and fisheries]. It is very exhaustive and addressing some of the following aspects (related to crop & livestock agriculture only):

1. Strengthening human resource capacity and its effective utilization
2. Prudent allocation and use of existing land
3. Adaptation of development path compatible with different agro-ecological zones - this divides the country into three main agro-ecological zones in terms of rainfall, land type, altitude, and other attributes, and tailors the responses to the conditions in each zone
4. Specialization, diversification and commercialization of agricultural production
5. Integrating development activities with other sectors
6. Establishment of effective agricultural marketing system, e.g., (a) Establishment of and strengthening of cooperatives, (b) Development of agricultural marketing capacity, (c) Establishing agricultural marketing information system, (d) Warehouse services and credit system
7. Crop production and productivity
8. Pest management
9. Livestock development and animal health services, e.g., (a) improvement of animal feed, (b) honey production, (c) silk production, (d) genetic improvement, (f) animal health services
10. Natural resource conservation and management, e.g., (a) water-shade development and natural resource management, (b) soil and water conservation, (d) water management for irrigation, (e) sustainable land use management, (g) biodiversity conservation and sustainable utilization

11. Agricultural research and extension (including crop & livestock research)

12. Food security program (including productive safety net program)

Although the PASDEP wholly integrates the provisions of the four CAADP pillars (albeit in a scattered manner), its provisions are too broad and do not take into account the multiple livelihood services derived from livestock. Its emphasis on commercialization of agriculture, private sector, industry and urban development does not take into account rural livestock-based livelihoods. It is also heavily lopsided in favour of promoting crop production compared to livestock/pastoral production. Experience shows that high transaction costs in pastoral areas associated with high poverty incidence, aridity, social insecurity, and poor communications infrastructure inhibit private sector participation in service provision in those areas (e.g., see Irungu et al., 2006; Catley et al., 2004).

3.2.1.3 The PIF

It retains the theme of agricultural development-led industrialization (ADLI) mainly focused on increasing the productivity of smallholder agriculture with farmers expected to graduate from purely subsistence farming to semi-subsistence/semi-commercial status. In this regard, sustainable natural resource management is critical. The role of social safety nets is emphasized to deal with disaster risk management and food insecurity. In general, the PIF is weak with regard to livestock/pastoral issues and particularly with regard to recognition of multiple livestock services.

3.2.1.4 Observation

The three policy documents reviewed (SDPRP, PASDEP and PIF) sequentially add value to each other in terms of content and articulation of issues. The theme of agricultural development-led industrialization (ADLI) runs through the three documents but with a shift from emphasis on purely poverty reduction (in the SDPRP), to commercialization of agriculture and private sector development (in PASDEP) to Ethiopia aiming to be a middle income country by 2020. Although the agricultural-sector issues in the first two documents are scattered, they are nonetheless exhaustively analyzed and adequately presented. Of course, more editing would remove the unending repetition to make the documents more focused and concise. The PIF amalgamates most of these issues in the first two documents into its four cardinal pillars that are then aligned to the CAADP pillars. However, the PIF is rather weak as it fails to adequately address livestock and pastoral development issues compared to the PASDEP. All the documents completely fail to recognize the multiple livestock-based livelihood services. As noted earlier, this state of affairs may have arisen from the failure of policy makers to understand who the clients of livestock development efforts/services are and their priorities and hence they promote the maximization of livestock production/productivity to increase marketed surplus.

3.2.2 Kenya

Four documents were reviewed in this regard, (i) the Interim PRSP, (ii) the Strategy for Revitalizing Agriculture (SRA), (iii) the National Livestock Policy, and (iv) the ASDS.

3.2.2.1 The Interim PRSP¹

The document decried the high incidence of poverty in Kenya that affected about half the population in 2000. This was mainly caused by the contraction of the economy in the 1990s principally as a result of the failure of SAPs. The IPRSP had five policy objectives, to (i) facilitate sustained and rapid economic growth, (ii) improve governance and security, (iii) increase the ability of the poor to raise their incomes, (iv) improve the quality of life of the poor, and (v) improve equity and participation. Growth of agriculture was seen as an instrument for poverty reduction. Towards this end, a 4-6 percent annual growth of the agricultural sector was envisaged. To achieve this, the following actions were to be undertaken:

- (i) Building an effective and efficient participatory extension and technology delivery service
- (ii) Undertaking affirmative action in agriculture by facilitating participation of women
- (iii) Establishing efficient rural finance and credit supply system for smallholders and rural primary agro-processors
- (iv) Ensuring policies, institutional and legal frameworks are investor friendly
- (v) Implementing sound land use, water and environmental policies
- (vi) Facilitating long term investments in farm improvement
- (vii) Protecting water catchment areas by developing forest plantations
- (viii) Improving the governance of the co-operative sector by empowering farmers
- (ix) Development of ASALs, e.g., improving livestock marketing, developing small scale irrigation schemes, rehabilitation of water resources, facilitation of private investment, disease control and revival of the then defunct Kenya Meat Commission².

The role of government was seen to be facilitative, only providing pure public goods (roads, research, security, etc) and setting up the regulatory framework (policies and legislation). There was no recognition of the broader livestock-based livelihood services.

3.2.2.2 The SRA

The SRA operationalized the Economic Recovery Strategy for Wealth and Employment Creation (ERS) promulgated by the Ministry of Planning and National Development in 2003. The SRA emphasized the revitalization of agriculture as the engine of economic growth. The vision was to transform Kenya's agricultural sector into a profitable economic activity capable of attracting private investment and providing gainful employment for the people.

In order to achieve this vision, the following actions were to be undertaken:

- (i) Reform of the legal and regulatory framework governing agricultural operations in order to make it fair and just for all farmers, processors, and others involved in agro-related activities.

¹<http://www.imf.org/external/NP/prsp/2000/ken/01/INDEX.HTM#I> - accessed on 6 January 2012.

²The KMC has since been revived.

- (ii) Promotion of research and technology development.
- (iii) Reform of the extension service system to create a more effective linkage between research, extension and the farmers as the ultimate beneficiaries.
- (iv) Establishment and development of a market-based agricultural credit and inputs system.
- (v) Commercialization of agriculture through domestic processing of agricultural produce in order to provide increased opportunities for value-adding, employment creation and foreign exchange earnings.
- (vi) Creation of an environment to promote private sector-led agricultural development.
- (vii) Promoting closer regional cooperation in the management and regulation of trans-boundary activities that foster the growth of the sector and improve the well-being of Kenyans.
- (viii) Reducing the prevalence of Human Immunodeficiency Virus/Acquired Immune-Deficiency (HIV/AIDS), in collaboration with other organizations, especially by improving nutrition and creating awareness of the disease.

In the livestock sector the following actions were to be undertaken:

- (i) Reform of legal & regulatory frameworks relating to animal production, trade, delivery of animal health and inspector services
- (ii) Develop and execute a disease control programme for the establishment of Disease Free Zones (DFZs) in strategic areas of the country
- (iii) Maintaining disease control infrastructure
- (iv) Development and institutionalization of monitoring and early warning systems and related preparedness plans for livestock pests and disease outbreaks
- (v) Improving access to artificial insemination services and animal breeds to farmers through the establishment of regional semen supply centres and the distribution of breeding materials to farmers and private inseminators.

With regard to the development of ASALs, the following actions were to be undertaken:

- (i) Increasing pastoral livestock production through the promotion of an efficient private sector-led marketing system
- (ii) Developing new modalities for disease control, including development of Freeze Dried Vaccine Production, regional vaccine distribution centres and contracting vaccination programmes to the private sector
- (iii) Enforcing livestock movement and animal health regulations

- (iv) Developing road and rail transport systems for the rapid extraction of animals to the markets
- (v) Increasing water harvesting and management infrastructure and disease-testing systems along stock routes to the markets
- (vi) Improving and developing the genetics of non-traditional livestock and animal species such as camels, ostrich and other wildlife through game cropping and sanctuary operation
- (vii) Encouraging new systems for the delivery of breeding services through farmer and breed organizations, the private sector and individual farmers
- (viii) Developing a participatory extension system responsive to the needs of the pastoral communities
- (ix) Providing support services such as power, roads and communications to facilitate development private slaughterhouses in production areas.

In order to promote domestic livestock trade, the following actions were to be undertaken:

- (i) Provide holding grounds, watering points, stock-routes, and livestock markets
- (ii) Encourage the private sector to invest in cold storage facilities
- (iii) Local Authorities to develop rural market centres and storage facilities for hire
- (iv) Develop a rural market information system.

It seems, from above, that the SRA amplified the provisions of the IPRSP. And like the IPRSP, it did not appreciate the broader livelihood services derived from livestock.

3.2.2.3 National Livestock Policy

The livestock policy as promulgated as Sessional Paper Number 2 of 2008. It addresses the challenges in the livestock sub-sector in respect of livestock breeding, nutrition and feeding, disease control, value addition and marketing, and research and extension. Although necessary in its own right to guide the development of the livestock, the livestock policy has significant overlaps with the SRA. For example, it talks of animal genetic conservation, disease control, research and extension, livestock marketing and valuation, animal nutrition, and cross-cutting issues (environment, infrastructure, gender, land, water, etc). The policy has six specific objectives; to

- (i) achieve appropriate livestock management systems for sustainable development of the livestock industry
- (ii) improve and conserve available animal genetic resources effectively
- (iii) achieve effective control of animal diseases and pests in line with the relevant international codes and standards

- (iv) focus research efforts in the livestock sub-sector on resolving current and emerging problems
- (v) ensure quality standards and quality assurance at all levels of production and marketing chain for increased competitiveness of the livestock industry
- (vi) address various cross-cutting issues that impact on the livestock sub-sector; among such issues are land, water, environment, infrastructure, insecurity, livestock-wildlife interactions, HIV/AIDS and other human diseases, gender and capacity building.

Although the document pledges to continue supporting pastoralism and agro-pastoralism as viable production systems, it does not appreciate the broader livelihood services derived from livestock. However, it mentions the need to stabilize and sustain pastoral livelihoods by initiating drought preparedness and recovery programmes, promoting sound range management practices, effective disease control and establishing appropriate livestock marketing infrastructure in the ASALs. It also pledges to support the establishment of the Kenya Livestock Research Institute to address the research needs of livestock and pastoral areas.

3.2.2.4 The ASDS

As mentioned earlier, the ASDS arose from the revision of the SRA. The ASDS introduced the SLM or CAADP Pillar I and a sector-wide approach to planning and is more elaborate than the SRA on gender issues and private sector and donor participation in agriculture. Although the ASDS proposes to improve the productivity of the ASALs, e.g., through range rehabilitation, soil conservation, water harvesting, disease control, legal and institutional reform, etc, it does not mention the multiple livelihood services derived from livestock. It asserts that because pastoral systems are changing with increasing sedentarization due to changing lifestyles and land tenure, and adoption of crop production in marginal lands, agricultural growth in these areas “must be led by intensification and substitution towards more high-value products, and expansion of the cultivated area through irrigation” (p. 9). This assertion somewhat dilutes the National Livestock Policy’s recognition of pastoralism as a viable production system.

3.2.2.4 Observation

The IPRSP is a bit general but covers all the sectors of the economy. Although the SRA borrows some aspects of the IPRSP, it has amplified most of the provisions, carefully identifying the agricultural sector targets and the necessary instruments to achieve them. The National Livestock Policy, on the other hand, assembles together all the livestock-specific issues mainly from the SRA. The ASDS sort of replicates the provisions of the SRA although it introduces the SLM pillar, gender issues, private sector participation and a sector-wide planning approach to accommodate the ten agricultural sector ministries. It therefore does not seem to have added much value to the SRA apart from introducing the SLM pillar.

Although each of these documents proposes specific strategies for improving livestock production/productivity, none takes into account the broader livelihood services provided by livestock. This could perhaps be due to the fact that the models used to analyze the livestock

issues addressed in these documents were not based on livelihood approaches¹ but rather on economic and mechanistic models that lack political, cultural and social perspectives other than market relations. For instance, Kenya's ASDS is based on the Threshold 21 model², which does not focus on livelihoods.

3.2.3 Uganda

Four documents were reviewed. These are (i) the PRSP I (PEAP 2000), (ii) PRSP II (PEAP 2004-2008) (iii) the Plan for Modernization of Agriculture (PMA), (iv) the DSIP and (v) the National Development Plan.

3.2.3.1 The PRSP I (PEAP 2000)

Uganda's first PRSP was published in 2000 as a revision of the Poverty Eradication Action Plan (PEAP), which was first promulgated in 1997. The PEAP had four major pillars, (i) creating a framework for economic growth and transformation, (ii) ensuring good governance and security, (iii) directly increasing the ability of the poor to raise their incomes, and (iv) directly increasing the quality of life of the poor. The overall national goals espoused in the PRSP are (i) reducing absolute income poverty, (ii) raising educational achievement of Ugandans, (iii) improving the health of the people, and (iv) giving voice to poor communities. No much detail is given in the PRSP on how these goals were to be addressed.

3.2.3.2 The PRSP II (PEAP 2004-2008)

PEAP 2000 was eventually revised into the second PRSP dubbed PEAP (2004-2008)³. The latter plan aimed at contributing towards transforming Uganda into a middle-income country, involving industrialization based on private investment in competitive enterprises. Agriculture was envisaged to play a leading role in the industrialization process through value added agro-processing. For this to happen, the short-run strategy was to strengthen both agriculture and manufacturing. In agriculture, interventions were to include infrastructure development (especially rural roads), provision of information and market development. For manufacturing, the strategy was also to strengthen infrastructure (especially electric power), improve governance (since corruption had been identified as a constraint for manufacturing), boost the education of the workforce, improve the financial system, and establish a regulatory regime that ensures a level playing field.

In order to increase production, competitiveness and incomes, the key priorities in the PEAP (2004-2008) were:

- (i) Modernization of agriculture

¹A livelihoods approach focuses on a household's capabilities and assets (both material and social) and activities required for a means of living (Carney, 1994).

²This is an integrated development model developed by the Millennium Institute and promoted by organizations such as the World Bank and the UNDP to help countries develop their medium to long term plans. It has been used to develop PRSPs in many developing countries. It is based on the "economistic" Cobb-Douglas production function.

³See <http://www.imf.org/external/pubs/ft/scr/2005/cr05307.pdf> - accessed 6 January 2012.

- (ii) Preservation of the natural resource base, particularly soil and forests
- (iii) Infrastructure improvement including roads, electricity and railways
- (iv) Enhancing private sector skills and business development.

The PEAP (2004-2008) provides broad economy-wide strategies which are synthesized into sector development plans. For the agricultural sector, the Plan for the Modernization of Agriculture (PMA) was designed.

3.2.3.3 The PMA¹

The PMA is a synthesis of the agricultural development interventions espoused in the PEAP (2004-2008). The Plan focuses on agricultural modernization and commercialization by a multi-sectoral approach to address the constraints facing agriculture-based livelihoods. The overall objective of the PMA is to eradicate poverty through agricultural transformation. The specific objectives are to:

- (i) Increase incomes and improve the quality of life of poor subsistence farmers through increased productivity and increased share of marketed production
- (ii) Improve household food security through the market rather than emphasizing self sufficiency
- (iii) Provide gainful employment through the secondary benefits of PMA implementation such as agro-processing factories and services
- (iv) Promote sustainable use and management of natural resources by developing a land use and management policy and promotion of environmentally friendly technologies.

These objectives are achieved through the following strategies:

- (a) Making poverty eradication the overriding objective of agricultural development
- (b) Deepening decentralisation to lower levels of local Government for efficient service delivery
- (c) Removing direct government interest in commercial aspects of agriculture and promoting the role of the private sector
- (d) Supporting the dissemination and adoption of productivity-enhancing technologies
- (e) Guaranteeing food security through the market and improved incomes, thereby allowing households to specialise, rather than through household self-sufficiency
- (f) Ensuring that all intervention programmes are gender-focused and gender responsive
- (g) Promoting a two-way (bottom up and top down) planning and budgeting process by empowering local Governments

¹Note: The PMA does not have a defined timespan.

- (h) Ensuring the co-ordination of the multi-sectoral interventions to remove any constraints to agricultural modernisation
- (i) Review of existing policy, legal and regulatory frameworks and where absent, developing new ones
- (j) Institutional reforms in agriculture.

The following priority areas for action are set out in Chapter 7 of the PMA (pages 48-81):

- (a) Research and technology development
- (b) National agricultural advisory service
- (c) Agricultural education
- (d) Improving access to rural finance
- (e) Improving market access
- (f) Sustainable natural resource utilisation and management
- (g) Improving physical infrastructure

Although the document is elaborate in its articulation of agricultural development issues and strategies to revamp agriculture, the PMA does not have specific provisions for livestock especially those in the pastoral and agro-pastoral areas. In addition, it treats all agro-ecological zones as if they are similar in terms of resource endowment and exposure to constraints. Although it aims to address the constraints facing agriculture-based livelihoods, the PMA's preoccupation with agricultural modernization and commercialization is a sure sign of marginalizing poor livestock keepers particularly those who are still subsistent-oriented and rural-based such as the pastoralists. However, the PMA pledges to promote the participation of both men and women at all levels including formulation of research agenda and mainstreaming gender (including women and youth) and HIV/AIDS in all its activities.

3.2.3.4 The DSIP

The DSIP borrows heavily from the PMA, both in content and also in its neglect of livestock issues. For example, the overall objective of the DSIP is to "increase rural incomes and livelihoods through improved household food and nutrition security" (ROU, 2010a), while one of the specific objectives of the PMA is to "increase incomes and improve the quality of life of poor subsistence farmers through increased productivity and increased share of marketed production" (ROU, 2004). The only difference between the two documents is that the DSIP has attempted to align its four cardinal objectives into the CAADP pillars. Both documents do not address issues of pastoral development and dwell too much on promoting productivity to increase the marketed surplus.

3.2.3.5 The National Development Plan

The National Development Plan 2010/11-2014/15 (NDP) was promulgated in April 2010 with a vision to transform the Ugandan society from a peasant to a modern and prosperous country

within the next 30 years. Its theme is “growth, employment and socio-economic transformation for prosperity” (ROU, 2010b). Each element of this theme provides a strategic thrust of the NDP with an over-arching policy goal of tying economic growth to poverty eradication. The NDP has eight strategic objectives:

- (i) Increasing household incomes and promoting equity
- (ii) Enhancing the availability and quality of gainful employment
- (iii) Improving stock and quality of economic infrastructure
- (iv) Increasing access to quality social services
- (v) Promoting science, technology, innovation and ICT to enhance competitiveness
- (vi) Enhancing human capital development
- (vii) Strengthening good governance, defence and security
- (viii) Promoting sustainable population and use of the environment and natural resources

The NDP is guided by the following principles: (i) ownership, (ii) political will, (iii) good governance, (iv) resource availability, (v) rebalanced development, (vi) behavior change, (vii) linkage with the national planning processes, (viii) sustainable and equitable development, and (ix) effective implementation, monitoring and evaluation mechanism.

The NDP proposes to use a quasi-market approach to realize its objectives. This approach emphasizes the role of the private sector as the engine of growth and development while government retains a facilitative and regulatory role to foster public-private partnerships. To achieve this, both the public and private sectors will need to adopt a corporate or business culture. With regard to different economic sectors, the NDP recognizes the primary role of agriculture in economic development and poverty reduction. It however proposes an annual growth target of agriculture of 5.6 percent, which is four points below the six percent envisaged by CAADP. Although the document recognizes this fact on page 78, it does not resolve it. Pages 79 and 80 deal with the Ugandan livestock sector giving statistics on herd sizes, production, trade and the attendant constraints across the value chain. When it comes to identifying the constraints in agriculture, the NDP lumps both crop and livestock constraints together and gives an overall picture rather than a sector-by-sector discrimination. Consequently, the unique constraints of the livestock sector and its players (farmers, traders, women, etc) are obscured.

Table 13 gives the objectives, strategies and interventions in agriculture proposed in the NDP focusing on livestock and their correspondence to the CAADP four-pillar framework.

Table 13. Objectives, strategies and interventions proposed in the NDP

Objective	Strategy	Main intervention	Correspondence with CAADP pillars
1. Enhance agricultural production and productivity	1. Improve agricultural technology development	-Technology development and uptake -Strengthening NARS	IV
	2. Effective delivery of advisory services & improved technology	-Farmer participation -Strengthen research-farmer-extension-service provider linkages	IV
	3. Disease, pest & vector control	-Early detection & control of crop, livestock & fish diseases	III
	4. Enhance productivity of land through sustainable land use and management of soil and water resources	-Support and scaling up ongoing activities on SLM	I
	5. Increase water supply for agriculture (crops, livestock & aquaculture)	-Rehabilitate irrigation schemes -Increase water storage	I
	6. Promote labor saving technologies	-Developing and promoting appropriate technologies including animal traction.	IV
	7. Improve access to high quality inputs	-Mainly deals with seeds (crops); no specify intervention for livestock	II
	8. Improve agricultural livelihoods in Northern Uganda	- <i>Apparently, there is no specific mention of livestock</i> -Improve value chains	II/III
	9. Accelerate development of strategic commodities - coffee, maize, fish, beef, dairy, etc	-Undertake value chain studies -Establish public-private partnerships	II

	10. Implement the hunger project - Epicenter strategy	-Cluster villages & implement catalytic programs to end hunger	III
2. Improve access to & sustainability of markets	1. Increase public-private partnerships in value chains with emphasis on strategic commodities	-Farmer organization -Market research -Review of tax regime -Infrastructure development	II
	2. Increase number of functioning & sustainable farmer organization in collective marketing	-Service provider capacity building	II
3. Create and enabling environment for competitive investment in agriculture	1. Improve capacity for quality assurance	-Legal and regulatory review -Human capital development	II
	2. Enhance sector policy formulation, planning and coordination	-Staff capacity development -Policy review	Cross-cutting
	3. Enhance intra & inter-sectoral coordination	-Strengthen coordination arm of MAAIF	Cross-cutting
	4. Build capacity to respond to climate change	-Identify climate effects, vulnerabilities & coping strategies among sector players	III
4. Enhance institutional development in agricultural sector	1. Strengthen MAAIF & its agencies	-Configure & re-align MAAIF & its agencies -Relocate MAAIF HQs to Kampala	Cross-cutting
	2. Increase human resource productivity	-Staff capacity building	Cross-cutting

Source: ROU (2010b)

3.2.3.6 Observation

There is no much value added in the apparently CAADP-compliant DSIP in relation to its predecessor, the PMA. As shown in Table 13, the objectives of the NDP are borrowed directly from the DSIP, which itself borrowed from the PMA. One wonders the need to develop multiple documents when their predecessors have not been implemented. As an example, an activity as mundane as relocating the MAAIF headquarters to Kampala proposed in the DSIP had not been

implemented by the time of developing the NDP. Probably because the DSIP and the NDP have been derived from the PMA, there is no difference between them; in other words, there is no value added by subsequent documents. Additionally, all the three documents ignore livestock and pastoral development issues. Even strategy number 8 under objective 1 in the NDP on improving agricultural livelihoods in Northern Uganda (see Table 13) does not explicitly mention livestock and pastoral development issue; yet, Northern Uganda is principally pastoral and its livelihoods predominantly based on livestock production. The three documents mainly concentrate on increasing agricultural productivity generally to increase the marketed surplus particularly in crop agriculture. Like in the case of Kenya, these documents do not appreciate the broader livelihood services derived from livestock. This could be attributed to the fact that they are based on economic models rather than on a livelihood analytical framework.

It is worth noting that in all the three countries, the poverty reduction strategic papers have not lost their poverty reduction focus in all their revisions. However, the lessons learnt from their implementation have not informed the subsequent revised documents.

4. CAADP COMPACTS IN THE IGAD COUNTRIES: WHAT POLICY PROCESSES?

This Chapter is based on interviews carried out by the author with key informants in Ethiopia, Kenya and Uganda. These informants included the CAADP national focal points in those countries; government officers, representatives of international organizations and consultants who had participated in the CAADP progress.

4.1 The CAADP process in Ethiopia

The CAADP process was launched in September 2008 and signed a year later in August 2009. The funding of the entire process was derived from a trust fund from donors kept with the Common Market for East and Southern Africa (COMESA). However, the actual cost of the entire process could not be established.

The Ethiopia CAADP country team comprised of eight people who were all male: (i) the CAADP national focal point from the MoARD¹, (ii) the Rural Economic Development & Food Security (RED&FS) secretariat coordinator, (iii) the CAADP Technical Assistant employed by the UNDP, and (iv) five consultants (four national and one international). The national consultants consisted of an agricultural economist, an agronomist, an expert on livestock and pastoral issues, and an expert on natural resources. The team was not based on gender but on technical merit. The team mix represented the four CAADP pillars. IFPRI provided the technical backstopping by undertaking the empirical study on investment, agricultural and income growth using a CGE model the results of which that informed the CAADP Compact. The CAADP team operated under a Steering Committee made up of the RED&FS Sector Working Group (SWG) consisting of agricultural sector ministries and 22 donors. The RED & FS SWG was divided into three thematic areas way before CAADP came to the picture. These included (i) Sustainable Land Management pillar, (ii) Agricultural Growth pillar, and (iii) Disaster Risk Management and Food Security pillar. The fourth pillar on Agricultural Research and Technology Dissemination & Adoption was introduced when the CAADP process started.

The CAAD Steering Committee met twice a year. However, the CAADP country team worked non-stop throughout the one year period. According to the key informants, little consultation was done with stakeholders at the grass-roots (poor livestock keepers and women livestock keepers). The main consultation was done during a single regional consultation workshop organized by the CAADP Ethiopia Focal Point Office. Participants were invited from all nine Regional State Governments of Ethiopia. From each region, four bureau heads or senior staff from the four pillar areas were invited. In addition, the directors of the various Directorates of the MoARD were invited. The participants were invited to be informed about the work done and at the same time to discuss the draft documents prepared by the national consultants.

The stocktaking exercise was undertaken by the consultants in three stages. The first stage was to take stock of existing policies, strategies and programmes following the four CAADP-pillar

¹Who was then the head of the Directorate of Extension - he has since become the Minister for Agriculture.

framework. Once this was completed, the second stage was undertaken by taking the first stage findings to the various Federal ministries, and other stakeholders including donor groups, the RED&FS, NGOs and civil society organizations (CSOs). The findings were discussed to identify policy gaps. On the basis of this, the national consultants prepared a document for the Regional Consultation Workshop, which was the third stage of the stocktaking exercise.

The stocktaking exercise reviewed documents from Federal and Regional States governments. This included both published and unpublished study reports, progress reports of various Ministries and Bureaus. The main documents that were reviewed during the stocktaking exercise included:

The Revolutionary Democracy

- (i) Rural Development Policy and Strategies (RDPS, 2003)
- (ii) Industrial Development Strategy (2002)
- (iii) Sustainable Development and Poverty Reduction (SDPRP, 2002)
- (iv) A Plan for Accelerated and Sustained Development to End Poverty (PASDEP, MoFED 2006)
- (v) EPRDF 7th Annual Meeting Report
- (vi) Millennium Development Goals Needs Assessment (MDGs-NA) for the Agriculture and Rural Sector and related MDGs reports ((MOFED, 2002; MoFED, & UN 2004)
- (vii) The Implication of WTO's Agreement on Agriculture, Sanitary and Phyto-sanitary agreements on Ethiopia
- (viii) Relevant sector economic policies, strategies and laws (1999)
- (ix) Studies by academicians and researchers in relevant areas.

The livestock-related documents consulted during the stocktaking exercise included:

- (i) ELTAP (2008). Pastoral and Agro-Pastoral land Tenure and administration Study. Addis Ababa.
- (ii) Bekele, E. (2007). Status of Extreme Poverty and Hunger in Pastoral Areas of Ethiopia, in the Proceeding of the 4th National Conference on Pastoral Development in Ethiopia, Pastoral Forum of Ethiopia, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.
- (iii) Ethiopian Institute of Agricultural Research (EIAR) (2008). "As is and to Be" documents of Livestock, Crops, Soil and Water Management, and Forest Management., EIAR, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.
- (iv) Ethiopian Society of Animal Production (ESAP) (2000). Livestock Production and the Environment - Implications for Sustainable Livelihoods: Proceedings of the 7th Annual Conference of the ESAP, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.
- (v) ESAP (2001). Pastoralism and Agro-Pastoralism: Which Way Forward? Proceedings of the 8th Annual Conference of ESAP, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.

- (vi) FAO (2000). Pastoralists in the marginal areas of the horn of Africa. Some development issues, Rome.
- (vii) Federal Cooperative Commission and Livestock Marketing Authority (2004). Dairy Market Development project in Addis Ababa and Nearby Area Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.
- (viii) ILRI (2010). Strategy 2010: Making the Livestock Revolution Work for the Poor. ILRI, Nairobi, Kenya.
- (ix) Smith, J. and Reda, A (2000). FEDR, Livestock Marketing Authority Livestock Market Information system for the Borana Zone of the Oromia Region Liben Zone of the Somali Region, by, Chemonic International, Addis Ababa.
- (x) MoARD (2008). Livestock Master Plan Study.
- (xi) Ministry of Agriculture (1997). National Livestock Development Program. Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.
- (xii) Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development (MoARD) (2008). Livestock Breeding Policy and Strategy (Amharic Version).
- (xiii) MoARD (2008). Livestock Development Master Plan Study. Phase-I Data Collection and Analysis: Policy and Institutions. Vol T, Addis Ababa Ethiopia.
- (xiv) MoARD (2008). Pastoral and Agro-Pastoral Land Tenure and Administration Study. Volume I and II, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.
- (xv) National Animal Health Service Strategy (Amharic version) (2005). MoARD, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.
- (xvi) Kumsa, T., Yigezu, Z. and Ayana, I (2008). Livestock Resource Potentials: Constraints and Opportunities for Intervention by Private Sector, Chamber of Commerce and Sida, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.
- (xvii) Sadler, K., Kerven, C., Calo, M., Manske, M. and Catley, A. (2009). Milk Matters: A Literature Review of Pastoralist Nutrition and Programming Responses. USAID, SC, FIC and Tufts University.

With regard to the CAADP principles of inclusiveness and participation, the CAADP process in Ethiopia seems to be deficient in a number of areas. First, the process seems to have been driven by consultants. While the consultants were recruited locally and had the necessary qualifications and political goodwill, there is always the danger of alienating the bureaucrats in the policy making process leading to outcomes that are unacceptable to them. The bureaucrats may also feel “used” to help meet others’ agenda without being recognized for personal effort leading to ambivalence about the outcome. Second, more important, the process did not involve the participation of grass-root stakeholders (poor livestock keepers and women) in identification of issues, problems and solutions thereto. In fact, one informant intimated that consulting the grass-roots stakeholders would have consumed a lot of time and increased the cost exponentially particularly considering the varied spatial distribution of Ethiopia’s poor livestock keepers. Thus,

to save time and cost the consultants relied on Regional State government operatives to validate the draft already prepared by the consultants. One of the key principles of CAADP is inclusion and participation by all stakeholders in the CAADP process. No wonder then that many of the issues affecting the grass-roots stakeholders are not captured in the CAADP Compact. Thirdly, many government officers particularly those dealing with livestock did not know about the CAADP Compact, its contents and process. Only those who were directly involved, particularly those from RED&FS SWG, had some information. This gives the impression that the team that led the CAADP process in Ethiopia was somewhat exclusive; it did not share information with the rest of the stakeholders. One wonders then how the CAADP is going to be implemented and sustained. The failure to share information is not unique to Ethiopia; however, it is indicative of the failure of NEPAD/COMESA to raise the awareness of stakeholders about the CAADP process in the AU member countries. Finally, the move by the Government of Ethiopia to promulgate the Growth and Transformation Plan (2010-2015) in November 2010 when the CAADP-compliant PIF has not yet been implemented leaves room for speculation as to how much it is committed to the CAADP.

4.2 The CAADP process in Kenya

The Kenyan CAADP process was launched in December 2006 and the Compact signed in July 2009. The funding was mainly obtained from the Government of Kenya; however, NEPAD/COMESA paid for the CAADP Compact signing workshop. The actual cost could not be established.

After the CAADP launch in 2006, two committees were formed. The first one was the Thematic Working Committee (TWC) whose objective was to steer the CAADP agenda in the country and prepare for the stock taking exercise. The membership of the TWC was identified by the CAADP National Focal Point (CNFP) in consultation with COMESA. It included the Agricultural Sector Coordinating Unit (ASCU), the CNFP (as the convener and secretariat), agricultural sector ministries (ASM) namely, Agriculture, Water and Irrigation, Livestock, Cooperative and Marketing, Environment and Land, Chairperson of the Development Partners and the Regional Strategic Analysis and Knowledge Support System (ReSAKSS) Coordinator. Later, a multi-sectoral Committee was formed comprising a wider representation of stakeholders drawn from sectors and institutions in agricultural development with representatives from the private and public sectors and Development Partners. The work of this committee was to give a wider input and make sure that views from all the sectors in the economy were represented in the CAADP process. This committee comprised of Agricultural Research Institutes, Universities, Development Partners, ASM, Other Ministries (Health, Finance, Trade and Industry, Planning and National Development), parastatals under the ASM, and Kenya Private Sector Alliance (KEPSA).

Eventually, the CAADP country team comprised of 15 people two of whom were females. The team included CAADP National Focal point (Male), representatives of private sector (Male), ReSAKSS (Male), Ministry of Trade (Male), Veterinary Department (Male), Ministry of Livestock (Male), Ministry of Agriculture (Male), Ministry of Cooperative (Male), ASCU (Female), Ministry of Water and Irrigation (Male), Maseno University (Male), Donor Representative (Male), KARI (Female), Ministry of Environment (Male), Kenya National Federation of Agricultural Producers (Male). It met once per month.

Two rounds of stocktaking were undertaken by hired consultants. The first round conducted by two consultants focused only crop issues. It was later realized that livestock issues had been neglected in the first stocktaking exercise thereby necessitating the recruitment of another team of two consultants to audit the livestock sector.

According to one of the key informants, the consultation process was restricted to the District level. The District Agricultural and Livestock Officers were used to identify 2-3 participants from each District who attended the consultation meetings. The identified stakeholders were those who were involved in farming and who could adequately articulate the issues. It seems there was little consultation of poor livestock keepers and women.

According to Kibaara et al. (2008), one of the main turning points of the CAADP process in Kenya was that it was viewed by ASCU and the Ministry of Agriculture in particular, as a parallel programme to the SRA. ASCU argued that it had five TWGs that addressed almost all the pillars under CAADP. It was felt therefore that there was no need to create a TWG on CAADP under the SRA as this would be tantamount to duplication. Additionally, the review of SRA into the ASDS incorporated the Natural Resource Management (NRM) pillar which was absent in the SRA. The NRM pillar was to be addressed through the creation of a sixth TWG. This way, all the CAADP pillars were captured in the ASDS. This observation partly explains why the Kenyan CAADP Compact does not seem to be well aligned to the four CAADP pillars.

The following are some of the documents consulted during the livestock audit:

- (i) Barrett, J.C. (1992). The economic role of cattle in communal farming systems in Zimbabwe. (Paper 32b) Pastoral Development Network, ODI, London.
- (ii) Nicholson, C.F., L. Mwangi, S.J. Staal and P.K. Thornton (2002). Impacts of dairy cow ownership on child nutritional status in Kenya, Draft Report.
- (iii) Campell, D.J. (1981). Land use competition at the margins of the rangelands: An issue in development strategies for semi-arid areas, in Norcliffe, G. and Pinfold, T. (Eds). *Planning African Development*.
- (iv) ILRI (2001). The perspective of researchers. Paper for the Institute of Economic Affairs (IEA) Open Forum on the policy concerns in the liberalized dairy industry, held on 18 September, 1998 at Serena Hotel, Nairobi.
- (v) Kenya National Bureau of Statistics (2007). Statistical Abstract, 2007. Government Printer, Nairobi.
- (vi) Ministry of Livestock and Fisheries Development (MoLFD) (2006). Annual Report, Nairobi.
- (vii) Muthee, A.M. (2006). Kenya Livestock Sector: An analysis of pastoralist livestock, milk and meat market value chains and potential external markets for live animals and meat, Draft Report. Prepared for USAID-AU-IBAR, Nairobi.
- (viii) Nyariki, D.M. and R.K. Ngugi (2002). Contribution of livestock food security in agropastoral systems: cases from southeast Kenya. In (eds) Abdulrasak, S.A., Mwangi, D. and Mukisira,

E.A., The challenges of drought to livestock production in Kenya. Proceedings of the Animal Production Society of Kenya (APSK), 7-8 March 2001, Egerton University, Njoro.

- (ix) RoK-Republic of Kenya. Various reports of the Ministry of Livestock Development, Department of Livestock Production, Nairobi.
- (x) RoK-Republic of Kenya (2007). Draft National Policy for the Sustainable Development of Arid and Semi-arid Lands of Kenya. Special Programmes Section, Office of the President, Nairobi.
- (xi) RoK-Republic of Kenya (2001). Kenya dairy development population and consumption projects to the year 2025. Draft Technical Paper, Ministry of Agriculture, Nairobi.
- (xii) Swift, J. (1977). In defense of nomads. *Mazingira*, 2:26-30.
- (xiii) Aklilu, Y., P. Irungu, and A. Reda (2002). An audit of the livestock marketing status in Kenya, Ethiopia and Sudan, Vol. I. Report prepared for CAPE of PACE, AU-IBAR, Nairobi.

The CAADP process in Kenya was initially met with acrimony by the Ministry of Agriculture which argued that its SRA was more superior to the proposed CAADP four-pillar framework. According to an informant, this acrimony was based on a misunderstanding of what CAADP was -generally and particularly how it was going to be implemented. That is, it was not clear whether CAADP was a project that was to stand on its own or whether it was to run parallel to the SRA. The confusion can be traced, like in the case of Ethiopia, to the failure of NEPAD/COMESA to create the necessary awareness about the CAADP process among key stakeholders. Unlike in the case of Ethiopia, the CAADP process in Kenya was more home-grown as it was mostly led by government bureaucrats. However, due to the initial resistance to CAADP by the Ministry of Agriculture, critical activities such as the stocktaking exercise and the CGE modelling by the IFPRI team run parallel to the revision of the SRA; they did not significantly inform the design of the ASDS from which the CAADP Compact was extracted. On the other hand, although the CAADP country team in Kenya attempted to incorporate all stakeholders in the process, it did not adequately consult the grass-roots stakeholders (poor livestock keepers and women), probably for reasons of cost and time. The signing of the Compact on the same day when the ASDS was signed signalled a major change of heart by key government operatives in embracing CAADP. This change is a perfect example of how policy making in developing countries is held captive by the ideological rationality of government bureaucratic apparatus. Additionally, and like in the case of Ethiopia, many government officers particularly those in the Ministry of Livestock Development did not know about either the CAADP Compact or the CAADP process, which further points to lack of awareness creation by the proponents of CAADP.

4.3 The CAADP process in Uganda

The CAADP process in Uganda commenced in December 2006 and ended with the endorsement of the Compact in March 2010. The funding was obtained from development partners through COMESA but the amount spent could not be established.

The CAADP country team was composed of two groups, (i) technical team made of about 20 Sector Working Group (SWG) members from the MAAIF, Ministry of Trade, Industry and Cooperatives,

Ministry of Finance, the private sector, Uganda National Farmers Association and development partners (USAID, IFAD, FAO, DANIDA, EU and world bank); (ii) two consultants who undertook the stocktaking exercise. It is worth noting that the SWG existed before CAADP came into the picture. The country team was meant to meet eight times a year but it only managed 3-5 times annually. The role of the country team was to steer the CAADP process, source and recruit consultants and approve their outputs, and mobilize people to attend the signing of the Compact. No criteria were used to select the CAADP country team members; some had been seconded to the SWG by their parent ministries and organizations. As such, gender was not a criterion for membership in the SWG.

During the development of the CAADP Compact, broad consultations were made at national and regional [District] levels. However, according to an informant, there was no guarantee that the views of poor livestock keepers and women were sought let alone being incorporated in the Compact.

The following livestock-related documents were consulted during the stocktaking exercise:

- (i) African Development Fund. (2005). Republic of Uganda - Agriculture and Rural Sector Review. Agriculture and Rural Development Department, African Development Bank.
- (ii) MAAIF. (2010b). Consultancy to formulate an animal health master plan in the Ministry of Agriculture, Animal Industry, and Fisheries. Draft report. Entebbe: MAAIF.
- (iii) Ministry of Agriculture, Animal Industries and Fisheries (MAAIF). (2010a) Development of an Updated National Strategy for the Dairy Sector. Entebbe: MAAIF.
- (iv) Government of Uganda (GoU). (2000). Plan for the Modernisation of Agriculture. Entebbe: Ministry of Agriculture, Animal Industry and Fisheries (MAAIF).
- (v) UBOS (2009). The Livestock Census. Preliminary Findings. Kampala: UBOS.
- (vi) World Bank. (2006) Uganda: Agriculture Sector Performance, A Review for the Country Economic Memorandum. Kampala: World Bank - Uganda office.

The major turning points in the process leading to the approval of the Compact included (i) Uganda chose not to rush the Compact signing. Instead, it developed the DSIP and then had the two documents signed on the same day; (ii) just before the signing of the DSIP and the Compact, development partners raised issues regarding the role of private sector in the document, and (iii) all the development partners signed the Compact individually, which probably showed their individual commitment to meeting the obligations under CAADP in Uganda.

Uganda seems to have embraced CAADP from the time the idea was proposed. Like in the case of Kenya, the process was more-or-less home-grown, being led by the government bureaucracy. The only major weakness was that, like in the case of Ethiopia and Kenya, it did not adequately involve the grass-roots stakeholders. As one informant revealed, the District representatives did not adequately represent the grass-roots communities. Additionally, there are no data and information to show how the issues and problems affecting the grass-roots stakeholders were identified and communicated to the CAADP country team by the District representatives. And like

in the case of Ethiopia and Kenya, most of the government officers particularly those in the Ministry of Livestock had no idea about the CAADP process. Some claimed it was only known to their counterparts in the Ministry of Agriculture who were directly involved. This reinforces the observation made earlier for Ethiopia and Kenya about the failure of the CAADP country team to share information and the lack of awareness creation by the proponents of CAADP.

5. CONCLUSION

Livestock play multiple but important roles in the lives of people living in the IGAD region. They provide food, fibre, social-economic services to millions of owners who keep them. These roles are critically important particularly among the pastoralists who largely depend on livestock for their livelihood. Hence, any policy, strategy or development programme designed to improve the performance of the agricultural sector in these countries must address livestock issues. This study evaluated how livestock-related issues have been articulated in the CAADP Compacts of Ethiopia, Kenya and Uganda. In particular, the study (i) reviewed how the CAADP Compacts endorsed by the three IGAD member countries appreciate the many livelihood services provided by livestock, and (ii) assessed how well the perspectives and priorities of various stakeholders, including the food insecure women, are reflected in the Compact. This was done in cognizance of the fact the CAADP framework is the prevailing continental “road map” for spurring the growth of African agriculture to enable it effectively contribute to the reduction of challenges arising from underdevelopment, food insecurity, hunger and poverty. In addition, many development partners concerned with the development of the agricultural sector in the IGAD region have agreed to realign their support to the CAADP agenda.

The study used two approaches to achieve its objectives (i) a thorough desk review of the literature including country Compacts, their supporting documents (policies, strategies, studies, etc) and other published and grey literature including searches on the internet, and (ii) conducted key informant interviews with stakeholders who had participated in the CAADP process to assess the level of participation of various stakeholders, particularly the food insecure livestock keepers and women in that process. The key informants included the CAADP national focal points in the three countries, government officers, representatives of international organizations and other stakeholders who had been involved in the CAADP process.

The study found that:

- (i) All the documents reviewed completely fail to recognize the broader livelihood services derived from livestock. This state of affairs may have arisen from the failure of policy makers to understand who the clients of livestock development efforts/services are or even their priorities. All the documents are pre-occupied with promoting the maximization of livestock production/productivity to increase marketed surplus without specific attention to the needs of poor livestock keepers and particularly women. It is worth noting that the majority of livestock keepers in Africa are what can be termed as “marginal livestock keepers”, meaning that they lack sufficient the critical mass of assets to regularly produce a surplus from their livestock to be able to participate in the market.
- (ii) Following from (i) above, the failure to recognize the broader livelihood services and the perspectives and priorities of grass-roots stakeholders could be partly explained by the fact that policy design in the three countries is based on purely physical economic models rather than being informed by a more social-oriented livelihoods approach which takes into

account a household's capabilities and assets (both material and social) and activities required for a means of living. Most economic models ignore this.

- (iii) Although the Ethiopian Compact is configured to align with the CAADP framework, the Compact and its supporting document (PIF) does not adequately address livestock issues. Interestingly, however, the post-CAADP Compact roadmap proposes eight interventions under Pillar IV to develop livestock and pastoral areas.
- (iv) The predecessor of the PIF (the PASDEP) was more articulate with regard to livestock issues compared to the PIF. It seems, therefore, that the PIF (which is supposed to be better) watered down the aspirations of the PASDEP with regard to livestock and pastoral development. Perhaps the failure of these policy documents to articulate livestock issues is due to the lack of a comprehensive livestock development policy and the weak representation of the livestock sector in Ethiopia's MoARD.
- (v) Kenya's CAADP Compact does not seem to be well aligned to the CAADP four-pillar framework. Its six thematic areas are scattered across two strategic foci, one on subsectors and the other on production factors. The failure of Kenya to adopt the CAADP framework could be attributed to its initial reluctance to mainstream CAADP into its SRA arguing that the former would rival or even run parallel to the latter. In comparison to Ethiopia's and Uganda's Compacts, the Kenyan Compact addresses livestock issues and clearly identifies the investments needed to develop the sector. However, it still does not provide the livestock-related data and indicators used to identify interventions in the livestock sector.
- (vi) Kenya's ASDS in many ways replicates the provisions of the SRA, the document it was meant to replace. However, although it introduces the SLM pillar, gender issues, private sector and donor participation as well as a sector-wide approach to planning, it does not engender a "business unusual" approach to the agricultural sector policy discourse as expected.
- (vii) Although Uganda's DSIP (the Compact supporting document) is packaged into four programmes, it is not explicitly cast into the CAADP four-pillar framework. In fact, the fourth programme dubbed "Institutional Development" is strictly not a programme but merely a reorganization of the MAAIF and its agents. The NDP, the successor of the DSIP, replicates the provisions of the DSIP, which borrows from the PMA. Hence, the three documents (the PMA, DSIP and NDP) ignore livestock and pastoral development issues and do not appreciate the multiple roles of livestock in sustainable livelihoods. The three documents do not add much value to each other begging the question on the need to develop multiple documents with overlapping contents and with no regard to lessons learned from their implementation.
- (viii) Based on the key informant interviews, it seems there was minimal, if any, participation of poor livestock keepers and women in the CAADP process in all the three countries studied. Some informants intimated that it would have been very expensive to conduct thorough consultations with grass-roots stakeholders. Others indicated that the time allocated to the process was too short to enable the country team conduct meaningful consultations with poor livestock keepers and women.

- (ix) Although gender issues somehow got their way into the CAADP Compacts, based on key informant interviews there was little participation of women and youth in the CAADP process. In fact, almost all the country teams in the three countries were entirely male (at least in Ethiopia; Kenya's team had two females in a team of 15; the composition of Uganda's team was unavailable).
- (x) From the key informant interviews, there are strong indications that the Ethiopian CAADP process was consultant-driven. While the engagement of consultants is important in respect to capacity constraints, there is always the danger of alienating the bureaucrats some of who may feel "used" by outsiders leading to ambivalence and non-acceptance of the resulting policy. The Kenyan CAADP process was mainly driven by the Ministry of Agriculture and spearheaded by ASCU. However, the initial scepticism about CAADP by the Ministry of Agriculture meant that the CAADP process ran parallel to the revision of the SRA and that important activities such as stocktaking and the CGE modelling by IFPRI did not significantly inform the process as envisaged by the CAADP secretariat. Uganda's case was somewhat mixed with partial participation of consultants and the national focal point.
- (xi) Except Kenya's MTIP that disaggregates the budget outlay according to agro-ecological zones, the investment plans of Ethiopia and Uganda are not disaggregated enough to show how much money is allocated to livestock and poor livestock keepers. This could be attributed to the lack of full integration of the livestock sector in both countries' Compacts.
- (xii) A keen examination of the various agricultural sector plans, policies and strategies in Ethiopia, Kenya and Uganda reveals some element of "path dependency"¹ in the way the plans, policies and strategies have been formulated and articulated over time. This may be explained by the fact that the constraints facing the agricultural sector in each of the three countries do not change significantly over the usual five-year planning period. A key example is the relationship between Ethiopia's SDPRP, PASDEP and PIF. While the underlying development philosophy running through these documents is agricultural development-led industrialization (ADLI), the main strategic thrusts remain the same year in year out. In fact, the PIF uses the phrase "foot on the ground" in an indirect reference to path dependency in technology development. The observed path dependency in policy formulation can also be attributed to the poor participation of grass-roots stakeholders in policy making. Although most documents claim to have consulted widely, there is no tangible evidence of how the grass-roots stakeholders' issues and problems were identified and included in the policy design. In particular, the documents do not indicate the tools and data used for problem identification and policy analysis. Consequently, the documents ignore the priorities of poor livestock keepers. Those that include them tend to treat them casually.

¹According to Kay (2005), a process is path dependent if "initial moves in one direction elicit further moves in that same direction; in other words the order in which things happen affects how they happen; the trajectory of change up to a certain point *constrains* the trajectory after that point" (p. 553).

- (xiii) Although the CAADP allows member countries to develop their Compacts in their own way, the CAADP process itself is unwittingly “top-down” and predominantly externally driven. Right from funding to the signing of the Compact and the supervision of CAADP implementation through the peer review mechanism, the whole CAADP process somewhat compels countries to abide by its rules. This may be viewed as an external imposition by participating countries with the sanction that those who fail to align their development plans with the CAADP framework risk losing donor support. This view may have informed Kenya’s initial reluctance to embrace CAADP.

Based on the foregoing observations, therefore, there is need to build the capacity of CAADP country teams in policy formulation and analysis in order to break path dependency patterns, which tend to limit the much required policy innovations, and thus enhance the quality of their CAADP documents. The current ones are patchy and at times repetitive and too wordy for comprehension. Coupled to this and given the strategic mandate of AU-IBAR in guiding the implementation of the CAADP Livestock Companion Document, there is need to provide the CAADP country teams with some tool, particularly one that is based on a livelihoods framework, to help them appropriately entrench the livestock sector and pastoral development in the various CAADP documents.

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